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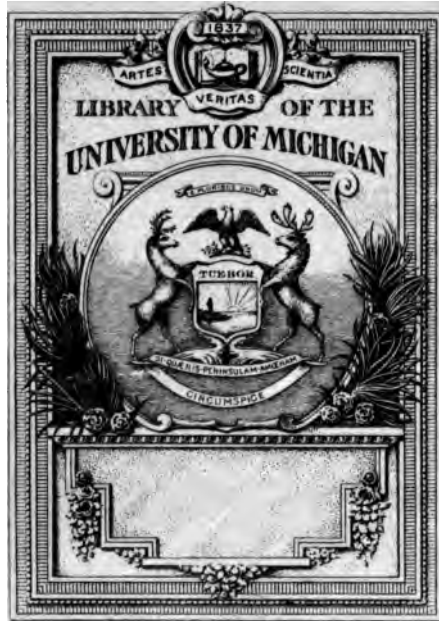
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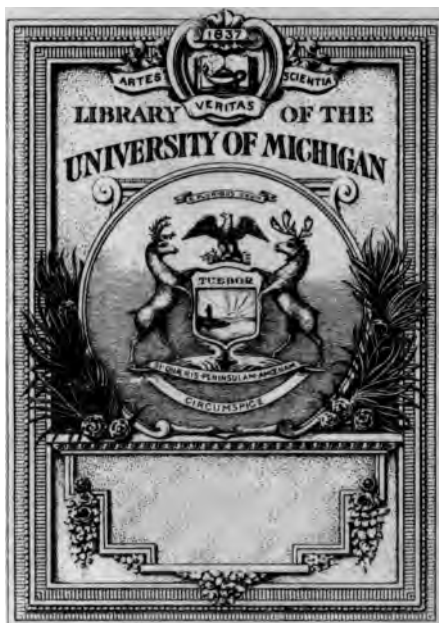
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HISTORICAL GEOGRAPHY
ON A REGIONAL BASIS

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HISTORICAL GEOGRAPHY ON A REGIONAL BASIS

BY

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EUROPE

WITH SEVEN MAPS

VOL. II



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PREFACE

THE work here attempted is an effort to meet an undoubted demand. In private conversation, and in several of the leading periodicals, one often hears how urgently important it is for students both young and old to learn the connection between Geography and History. No great effort, as far as we can see, has been made to supply this need upon a general scientific basis. We can recall four books upon Historical Geography proper, as defined in the introduction to this volume: one by Mr. H. B. George; one by Professor A. P. Brigham, *Geographic Influences in American History*; one by Professor W. M. Ramsay, *The Historical Geography of Asia Minor*; and Professor George Adam Smith's brilliant and picturesque *Historical Geography of the Holy Land*, assuredly a model for all such. Of these, the American work fills an aching void very efficiently, but the last two only cover small regions. They are specialist books. Our purpose here is to define the meaning of the term Historical Geography,

and to apply it to a large region educationally and suggestively. Much of what we have to say borders on the obvious, and all parts of it can be amplified by any one having special local knowledge. But the whole study needs to be outlined, and we have not as yet seen that done on truly geographical lines.

The illustration of History by politically coloured maps, with freakish attempts at hill-shading, is not Historical Geography. Nor is the process of memorising endless changes of frontier, which a chance war may at any time obliterate, to be called by that name. We study the Earth: that is Geography. We take one branch of that study, man on the Earth, showing how the Earth has moulded the affairs of man: that is Historical Geography. The basis is physical. Our maps must be physical; and throughout we must remember that Geography is the substantive and Historical the adjective. Our treatment is regional: consequently we shall again and again cut across political divisions, and political divisions will have one chapter allotted them, instead of the whole volume. The term "Europe" will be used in a wide sense; the whole Mediterranean regions must needs be included, and the study of Russia can by no means be confined to the west of the Urals. Strictly speaking, it is inadmissible to draw the line between the Balkan Peninsula and Asia Minor, or Egypt and Syria and Arabia; and, to be consistent, we should treat in this

volume of Eurasia rather than Europe; but considerations of space compel us to leave Asia and Africa alone as far as possible.

It has been thought wise to make each volume of this work self-contained. The introductory parts are therefore similar, though not quite identical.

I would urge all teachers of History to insist on having a good physical wall map ready to hand whenever they teach the subject. There are plenty to be had at a reasonable figure; I have found Kiepert's the most useful. The Sydow-Habenicht series (Philip), or Philip's own physical maps, those of E. Stanford, and the new orographical maps which Mr. William Stanford is executing so efficiently for Messrs. W. and A. K. Johnston, are all valuable. Kiepert's 1:1,000,000 sheets of Europe, with names, are very finely contoured, and have the advantage of exactly locating such small but important places as Leuthen, Lützen, and the like. Boys and girls, as a not inconsiderable experience has taught me, take fifty per cent. more interest in History when it is intelligently treated in the light of Geography, or *vice versa*, than they ever have done before.

For the rest, I should like to declare myself deeply indebted to the inspiring lectures of Mr. Mackinder at Oxford, and more deeply still to Mr. Herbertson, Reader in Geography to that University, for his very kindly interest and encouragement, extending over

several years. I have also to thank my wife for very efficient help in the least interesting and most necessary parts of the work.

E. W. D.

*Claremont,
Chart Lane,
Reigate ; Feb. 1908.*

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTORY


1. **Scope of Geography.**—There are many definitions of the term “Geography,” and it is not our purpose here to argue out the precise limits of the subject. We must, however, try to find out, at any rate, what it is *not*, so as to gain a starting-point in our brief study in this volume of one phase of it. Dr. H. R. Mill says: “Geography is the exact and organized knowledge of the distribution of phenomena on the surface of the earth, culminating in the explanation of the interaction of man with his terrestrial environment.”

The core of that definition is the word *distribution*. Suppose we are considering rainfall. If we were learning what is generally called Physiography, and if we were treating of rainfall, we should explain *why* rain falls. In Geography we learn both *why* and *where*. Then we go on to consider how rainfall affects the various regions of the world, what vegetation it helps to produce, and how man adapts himself to its abundance or scarcity.

2. **Historical Geography.**—It will be seen, then, that we must always begin from the *physical*. If we merely

say, for instance, that Liverpool is on the Mersey and imports cotton, we have learned a fact and no more. If, however, we study the position of Liverpool, the structure of the estuary on which it stands, the Midland Gate, and the facilities for the growth, on a coal-field, of many large towns inland, with easy communication seawards, as well as the sources of cotton supply, we have learned our main fact in a scientific way and also opened our eyes to similar interactions of cause in other places.

When we are dealing with History, it is not sufficient to know *where* events took place. We must try to find out *why there*. Now, it is useless to suppose that we can always do so; but it is not too much to say that History and Geography are inseparable, and that all leading actions of men have their first cause in the nature of the lands in which they live. No one expects Eskimos, or Red Indians, or Hindus ever to become world-conquerors, explorers or colonists. Their climate, their distance from good harbours, the structure of their lands, all forbid such development. When, therefore, we learn that this nation rose, that that nation fell, that this city has grown while that one has not, that migrations, and campaigns, and battles have occurred in certain places, we must try to find out how far these events have been moulded by geographical position. Half the History we learn can never be fully understood or appreciated if we do not carefully consider its



geographical side. Historical Geography, properly so called, is the "explanation of the interaction of man with his terrestrial environment," that is, the explanation of the way in which man's surroundings have moulded his actions. Therefore, when we study History, we should not occasionally look out some tiny village, marked with crossed swords on a map which only shows rivers, towns and coastline; we should constantly have before us a physical map of the region we are studying.

3. Physical features and History.—It is easy to illustrate how physical features affect History. Low land, especially at the mouth of some navigable stream, may be expected to serve as the place of entry into a country for hostile peoples. We remember how in our own country the Thames Estuary, the Wash, the Humber and Southampton Water gave entry to Saxon and Dane; how the Dublin lowland made the heart of Ireland easy of access to Strongbow, to Essex, to Cromwell; how Lisbon gave a base to the English in their struggle against Napoleon's marshals; how the Guadalquivir gave the Moors an entry into Spain, and how the possession of the St. Lawrence gave us Canada. To realize the force of these illustrations you must look at the physical, or, as it is sometimes called, the orographical¹ map of the regions mentioned.

¹ Greek, *oros*, a mountain. We shall use the term "height map" to mean "orographical map," i.e. a map which depicts mountains.

This rule concerning lowland and river mouths does not by any means always hold good. The River Amazon, vast flood that it is, with an enormous basin stretching for nearly 2000 miles back to the Andes before it even reaches an elevation of 600 feet, is no easy highway into South America, although the height map would tell us that it is. The reason is to be found in the dense tropical rain-forest which occupies the whole region. The Niger mouth never led explorers in the direction of Timbuktu: a physical map does not show its ill-defined delta, a maze of mangrove swamp. Hudson's Bay is not the classic waterway into Canada. It is too often frost-bound. Latitude plays its part. Harbour facilities are profoundly important. The fact of facing or not facing other important lands is always to be considered. But even here the chief feature is land structure.

4. **Man and his Surroundings.**—We must not, however, forget that when we are dealing with man, we are considering a very variable and difficult phenomenon. Some peoples are the absolute slave of their surroundings; some often rise superior to them. The Turks, for instance, have allowed Bagdad, in former days one of the world's great cities, to sink into partial decay owing to the silting up of the Tigris. Contrast this with Glasgow. The Clyde was fordable at this point within the memory of living man. Now the river has been dredged, and the largest ocean steamers can sail up to

the wharves of this great port and discharge their loads in what has become the second city of the United Kingdom.

Sometimes man conquers obstacles which have seemed insuperable. A hundred years ago no one would have thought it possible to traverse the Alps at a high speed in a few hours in comfort, nay, even in luxury; but at the present day we have three separate railway routes through this range—three successive and signal triumphs of engineering skill. Think, too, of Hannibal's marvellous attack upon Rome in the Second Punic War. Unable to travel by sea—for Rome had command of the Mediterranean—he invaded Spain, crossed the Rhone, traversed the Alps with a surviving force of 20,000 foot and 2000 horse; after a few days he chastised the hostile barbarians, took from them their city of Turin, and then faced the power of Rome, with its army of 170,000 men. This is a military feat without parallel in history, to win one's way to an enemy's capital through a half-subdued country (Spain), to take an African army, and several elephants, across a snow-covered range, and to maintain the struggle for years against almost overwhelming odds. The British development, quite recently, of the port of Durban, and the establishment, in one of the most unpromising spots on the earth, of the port of Aden, for strategic purposes, are other instances of the way in which a progressive people defies nature to baffle its growth.

5. "**Freedom loves the hills.**"¹—It is well known that hill peoples are almost invariably lovers of freedom. The Swiss, the Afghans, the Scotch, the Welsh have all made history by their grand struggles for independence. The question of physical surroundings goes much further than one would at first suppose. Take for an instance Albania. The Shar range permits no passage of loaded animals: the hills slope towards swampy ground or an inhospitable shore: and torrential streams, fed by a copious rainfall, flow in deep troughs through hills of very steep incline. The consequence is the separation of clan from clan, absence of common sentiment or authority, a glorification of fighting, a devolution of all hard work upon women, blood-feuds, dislike of town life, and all the evil passions bred by these habits of existence. Yet these same people, if found in other parts of this region, in Constantinople or the Levant, become, in their changed conditions, comparatively harmless and even ornaments to society. Farther south, in a flatter country, these dreaded Ghegs give place to the more amenable Toskhs, flocks and herds are kept, there is no blood-feud, strangers are admitted, some attention is paid to the soil, and the use of weapons is no longer the be-all and end-all of existence.²

¹ "Advance—come forth from thy Tyrolean ground—
Dear Liberty! stern Nymph of soul untamed;
Sweet Nymph, O rightly of the mountains named!"
Wordsworth's *Sonnets*.

² *The Nearer East*, by D. G. Hogarth, pp. 229 *sqq.*

Indeed, in small areas we can see very wide differences in people who have always lived on the land. Most people can see a wide difference between what Northerners call the "sturdy independence" (while Southerners use a less complimentary term) of your Yorkshire or Lancashire man, and the milder and more considerate manners of those who dwell in the Thames Valley or the Eastern counties. And how the cultured and artistic Athenians of old poured scorn and contempt upon the farmer Thebans, "Bœotian pigs," as they named them!

6. Sea-power and History.—No Englishman needs to be reminded of the importance of sea-power. Our insular position, added to the magnificent way in which the nation has taken advantage of it, is the root cause of the very existence of what is assuredly the most amazing world-power that history has ever seen. A hundred years ago Napoleon had his great camp of 300,000 men ready at Boulogne: but he was never able to start upon even so short a journey as that to England. According to an account published at the time, two tides, *i.e.* nearly a whole day under the circumstances, were necessary to get the whole flotilla to sea: and a fleet far feebler than ours could have very seriously delayed operations and given full notice of the Emperor's approach. Even if the invasion had been successful, it is difficult to see how the invading army could have won its way back to France. Again,

one of the dearest aims of the German Kaiser at the present time is to create a fleet large enough to claim command of the seas. Germany feels that, however invincible her army may be, she is ill-fitted for a great conflict if one of her two arms is weak. A large army is absolutely paralyzed for aggressive work if not supported from without by a powerful fleet. Russia's disaster in the Korean Straits put an end to her chances of maintaining successful conflict with Japan. The Trans-Siberian or any other railway cannot hope to compete with the sea as a means of transporting large bodies of men and enormous quantities of stores; and Japan was at perfect liberty, having once gained command of the sea, to land as many men and guns as she pleased, and wherever she thought fit.

7. Geology and History.—Even geology, the science which deals with the materials and formation of the earth's crust, can over and over again be shown to have a distinct bearing upon history. Geology and geography overlap so pronouncedly in some departments that it is necessary to point out here that, if we use the former word in its full sense, this science will be found to have played a very important part in quite half our history. If, however, we limit our meaning to rock structure, we can even then, in many cases, find remarkably instructive features. Sir Archibald Geikie¹ has illustrated this wonderfully in the case of Scotland, and Professor

¹ *Scenery of Scotland*, chapter xix.

George Adam Smith¹ in the case of Palestine. But it is only in part that geological structure affects human conditions. Orographical features are the features to study in this connection. The Alps, whether they be crystalline or calcareous, Archæan or Miocene, are everywhere a barrier to communication. But it is equally true that many parts of the Nearer East would be more habitable and less arid if the streams carved their beds in sandstones or clays instead of permeable limestones. The Highlands of Scotland are incapable of supporting a large industrial or agricultural population, not merely because they are Highlands (for so are the fertile parts of Switzerland), but because of the materials of which they are composed. "Not a tree or a bush casts a shadow over these wastes of barren rock. . . . Grey, rugged and verdureless, they look as if they had but recently been thrust up from beneath the waves, and as if the kindly hand of Nature had not yet had time to clothe them with her livery of green. . . . The whole landscape is one wide expanse of smoothed and rounded bosses and ridges of bare rock, which, uniting and then separating, enclose innumerable little tarns." The history of such regions as these is a history of clans and forays. Geological structure, then, can be often shown to play its part; but it is by no means our purpose to go beyond the domains of pure geography.

¹ *Historical Geography of the Holy Land.*

8. **Treatment different for different regions.**—In order adequately to fulfil the task set before us, we should really have to detail *all* the leading events possessing any affinity which have taken place along a given route or in a given spot. That is obviously impossible in the scope of this small work. Vienna alone, for instance, or Belgrad, is capable of absorbing a very large volume indeed. The east coast route to Scotland, which has been somewhat fully treated in Vol. I, Chapter VII, at some risk of tediousness, will serve as some sort of indication of what we mean. We have endeavoured to choose leading events, paying chief attention to modern history as being familiar enough to serve by way of illustration.

It may be urged that our study becomes in places a mere Military History. If that be so, it is quite unavoidable. Most of the cosmos of nations has been created out of the chaos of barbarism or social revolution by fighting; and the landmarks of the world's annals are battles and treaties. Hence, as our study narrows down from the general to the particular (the whole plan of this work in a nutshell), the mere narration of fighting and bargaining as the result of fighting sometimes takes the place of philosophical speculation. We make no apology for that; we will only quote a somewhat exaggerated, but wholly pertinent, statement by Dr. Miller Maguire,¹ "The struggles of embattled men are perennially

¹ *Military Geography*, p. 13.

interesting to all men, and the history of mankind is the history of armies."

9. **Summary.**—It may well be imagined that, if we are to study Historical Geography upon the lines laid down, our task is a great one. The term has usually been applied to a casual study of the political control of certain regions at certain times. Voluminous works and monumental atlases have been compiled to illustrate this kind of thing, and they are immeasurably useful: but the mastering of them is merely a matter of memory. Historical Geography, as we understand it, is no mere memory work: it is thoroughly scientific, and it is, as far as literature is concerned, in an embryo stage. It must be understood that to take every region of the world and to argue out its history in the light of its geography is a stupendous undertaking: to show how similar events have recurred in similar places all down the ages postulates a truly colossal knowledge. Something, however, can be done in this direction, and as inexpensive books dealing with the history of, say, Hungary, Servia, Poland, or Afghanistan are certain to appear in the natural order of things, no student, however humble, need despair of learning the true Historical Geography of any region he may care to study. The boundaries of Prussia at different times in the world's history, or those of France, have depended as much upon accidents, such as the existence of great ministers or incapable generals, as upon questions of

mountain and valley and plain; but the battles of Blenheim and Hohenlinden, and the surrender at Ulm, or the fights at Kolin, Prag, the White Mountain, Lobositz and Königgrätz point to the fact of man's activities being directed into the same channel over and over again, and demand an answer to the question, Why there?

This work is only a small two-volume manual. Its object is not to satisfy, but to stimulate. It does not profess to be anything but a skeleton of its subject. Almost any student will be able to supplement it at some point. But the whole field which it opens is vast. Learn the geography of your own district. Learn its history at the same time, and see how far the latter is dependent upon the former. If we can cause the student to think for himself, our end is gained. We wish to be suggestive, and make no attempt to be exhaustive. The main idea to be borne in mind is man in his environment. This may mean Anthropology, or Commerce, or even Religion (for religious creeds have very definite geographical distributions). We confine ourselves to History.

CHAPTER II

PHYSICAL FEATURES AND HISTORY

1. **Evolution.**—In these days, when the great doctrine of Evolution is a guiding principle in science, it is natural to attribute the habits, nay, even the dispositions of men to their “environment.” It is possible to go very far in showing how different species of the same genera of living creature owe their peculiarities to the exigencies of their separate and several surroundings. The larger cats are good instances of this. In the jungles of Bengal the tiger is found, his black stripes on yellow fur affording him concealment which would be denied him if he were a darker animal. The lion inhabits drier lands in Africa, Arabia and Persia, and his uniform tawny colour, against his background, is of great use to him. The jaguar, a creature sometimes almost black in hue, haunts the dusky shades of the South American rain-forest. Plants, too, even to persons of most ordinary knowledge, show the same characteristics. In the Mediterranean region, for instance, the plants are specialized to resist droughts; they have thick, fleshy leaves and long roots, and are mostly evergreens. In the tundra mosses and lichens grow;

and on the steppes the peculiar weather conditions make it impossible for trees to thrive, and bulbous plants and grasses flourish. Man is also subject to the same general laws, but in a less degree.

2. Man classified according to geographical conditions.

—Of all the various phenomena on which man's characteristics are dependent, the chief is *climate*. This will be found to be all-inclusive; as climate depends upon rainfall, upon temperature, upon latitude and upon altitude. It will be useful to give a brief sketch of the varying conditions under which man pursues his daily vocations in different parts of the world. To preface this, it will be necessary to see how the world can be divided into suitable regions as a basis of our investigation. This has been done by Mr. Herbertson. In the March, 1905, number of the *Geographical Journal* appeared a paper by him upon the Major Natural Regions. We reproduce his map, by his kind permission, and with his own corrections, and use his divisions as our standard. (See Plate I.) The basis, in the main, is climate. "Only when minor forms are taken into consideration does configuration become the all-important factor."¹ The explanation of the divisions is as follows:—

3. Areas marked 1 are Polar.—1a represents lowlands. This type of country is known as Tundra. In lands of this description the temperature in summer seldom

¹ *Geographical Journal*, xxv. 3, p. 309.

exceeds 50°: in winter it is almost incredibly cold. Dwarfed woods in the more southerly parts, mosses and lichens only in others constitute the sole vegetation. The rivers abound in salmon, and the reindeer is the characteristic land-animal. The dwarf birch, about three feet high, and cranberries and kindred bushes are sometimes mingled. Swampy ground bears reeds and downy willows. Man exists upon fish and reindeer flesh, doing a not inconsiderable trade in the summer in furs. This region will be seen to extend right across the mainland of North America and Eurasia, and to include most of Labrador, beginning in the Old World in Lapland and extending eastwards to Kamchatka. Greenland is of another type, and belongs to

1b. This is the ice-cap type. For obvious reasons, not much is known of countries of this description: they do not invite the traveller to tarry. Great glaciers descend from the heights to the sea and break off into huge icebergs, and these have a marked effect upon navigation in the North Atlantic. The ice is of immense thickness, and is penetrated in places by lofty mountains.

4. **Areas marked 2 are cool temperate regions.**—In the Polar lands we have areas which can never, in the natural order of things, have much bearing upon man's activities. Here, however, we come to lands of the highest importance.

2a represents the Western margin of continents in

fairly high latitudes. The fortieth parallel roughly represents the boundary on the Equatorial side, and Western Europe is the chief area. It is only necessary to say that the French, the English, the Dutch and the Germans belong to this country to realize how important it is. The air is neither too hot nor too cold. It is very rarely the case that man cannot go about his business any day in the year. Ports are perpetually open: harbours happen to be numerous, and where they are deficient the energy of man makes good the defect. The canals and polders of Holland, and the immense mark made upon the pages of history and economics by the Western European nations generally, speak eloquently of man, highly developed through having no serious climatic obstacles to surmount, taking full advantage of his opportunities, and rising superior to difficulties when they face him. Rainfall is adequate at all seasons and abundant in some, vegetation is of the forest or forest-clearing type: soils are either good naturally or are made so by the ingenuity of scientific man, and in Europe mountains are no barrier to communication. In the case of the New World, the structure of the land makes a great difference to human geography. Here the folded ranges are parallel to the coast, and hinder communication. In Europe they have a West-East trend, and do not reach the coast at all in the region under notice.

2*b* represents the Eastern margin of continents, and

Quebec is given as the characteristic area. No part of Europe is included, but the Great Lakes and the New England seaboard, and the nearer portion of our Canadian realm are contained in it. Rainfall is very moderate, nowhere exceeding forty inches per annum, structure is on the whole favourable to commercial intercourse, but temperature is unpleasantly extreme. On the other hand, 2*b* has been peopled by the surplus population of 2*a* and their descendants, and, now that the lands are becoming more highly developed, is playing a supreme part in present history. In the case of Asia, climatic conditions are more extreme than in America, and land-structure is all against man.

2*c* represents the interior lowlands. Two great areas belong to this type: the first is the Canadian portion (roughly speaking) of the great central lowland of America, excluding the tundra; and the second is the enormous stretch of level land, only broken by the Urals, which reaches from, say, the Oder and the political boundary of Sweden to the River Lena. There is a remarkable uniformity of physical conditions. The Arctic regions are not separated from the 2*c* lands by any heights, and, accordingly, the northern blasts reach as far south as the Black Sea without any mitigation of their intense bitterness. Hence the January isotherm of 32° F. enters Scandinavia in longitude 15° E, near the Arctic Circle, descends, *viâ* the Carpathians, to the mouth of the Danube, and then

runs almost along the fortieth parallel to the Pacific. That is to say, directly conditions become continental, winter becomes rigorous. 2*a* lands are comfortably cool when it is almost impossible to keep out the deadly chill twenty-five degrees further South in 2*c*. The summer is uniformly hot and dry, becoming slightly hotter and very much drier the farther we go East. As far as human geography is concerned, it is only necessary here to say that Germany and Russia largely belong to this region. Huge crops of wheat are raised on the edges of the steppes, and there is a tremendous forest belt, coniferous, mixed and deciduous, of the highest value. These lands are interrupted on the seaward side by

2*d*. These are interior mountain areas, the Altai in Eurasia, and the Rockies in America. It is not too much to say that if 2*c* had reached to the Pacific, there would have been profound modifications in the history of the world. Russia's Eastern expansion would have been uninterrupted at a time when neither England nor Japan was in the position to circumscribe it. In the case of Canada the area of cultivation is seriously curtailed by the presence of high land, but man has founded great settlements on the West.

5. **Areas marked 3 are warm temperate regions.**—3*a* represents Western margins with winter rains. The Mediterranean in Europe, California in N. America, Chile in S. America, the Cape of Good Hope, the south-

eastern and south-western corners of Australia, and the North Island of New Zealand constitute the main examples. Dry summers prevail and droughts are not infrequent. In winter there is enough moisture to perpetuate the existence of plants which can live for a long time, owing to their lengthy roots, without wet and in a scorching sun. Wheat, too, is a characteristic crop. Adequate rain to start the green shoots, and a hot sun to ripen the grain are the chief requirements, and a glance at the wheat map of the world¹ shows that that commodity is marked in all the above-mentioned lands. Generally speaking, colonists have peopled the 3a region, the European area being a most important exception. Here the height map shows features which greatly complicate one's study, but it is worth while to notice that the men who have for many centuries lived in Southern Europe and the Atlas lands have shown a steady deterioration. This is generally ascribed to the enervating climate, which demands the luxurious mid-day siesta, and to the obscurantist influences of non-progressive religions. Certain it is that the Spaniard of to-day is far behind his ancestors of the seventeenth century, and the twentieth-century Italian is far behind in the race which he so nobly led in the days of the new mariner's compass. Still more is the modern hybrid Greek a mere shadow of the classic citizen of Athens, Sparta or Thebes. But these questions

¹ e.g. pp. 62-3 of *Atlas of the World's Commerce*. Newnes.

will be found more fully discussed in succeeding chapters.

3b represents Eastern margins with summer rains. China, New South Wales, Natal and the Appalachian region of North America are herein comprised, and it may immediately be said that in no case are conditions against human activity. Unpleasantly cold and unpleasantly hot weather do not as a rule seem to affect the activities of human beings. Buffalo, New Orleans, Pittsburg, Washington, Peking, Sydney, are proofs of the importance of the region, the home of some of the great races of modern times.

3c regions are the interior lowlands, such as part of the Mississippi basin, the Pampas of South America, and Turan, the Ural-Caspian lands, which the height map reveals as a huge depression. These are steppe lands. Steppe varies considerably. The winter-time is unpropitious for all creatures, and often insupportable. Summers are arid, but on the whole bearable, and spring-time is a beautiful season. The main question, however, is one of soil. The Red River (of the north) region is world-famous as a wheat land, and the Argentine is being rapidly developed both for arable and pasture. On the other hand, much of Turan is ruined by excessive salinity. The inhabitants are essentially nomadic: they keep flocks and herds, and have to go where feed is to be found. In themselves, they have never made history; but their lands, owing

to structure and geographical position, have ever been on the highway from West to East or East to West, and loom large in the annals of the past. For similar reasons, that is even more so in the case of the adjoining Asiatic part of

3*d*. These regions are inland plateaus. Patagonia, which has never, owing to its remote position, played a great part on the world's stage; Mongolia, which has suffered from like causes as well as from the gradual drying up of the land, and Iran, the highland between the Levant and the north-west borders of India,¹ are 3*d* countries. In considering the last-named, the exploits of Xenophon, Alexander, and Timurlane remind us of the enormous interest of the greatest of the world's highways of migration. It is the platform on which East and West have over and over again wrestled before the gaze of the world.

6. **Areas marked 4 are tropical.**—4*a* represents west tropical deserts. The Atacama waste of South America, the Colorado region, the Sahara, the Arabian plateau, the Thar of India, the Kalahari in South Africa, and a great deal of the interior of Australia, belong to this category. Mountain ranges, situated so as to interfere with the passage of moisture-laden air from the ocean, and the unfavourable direction of winds, produce desert conditions. In the case of

¹ We use the term loosely. Iran, properly so called, is the central portion of this plateau.

America, the prevailing breezes in the latitudes under consideration are parallel to the coast: off North Africa the prevailing direction is north-east, so that Central America is drenched, and the Sahara receives less than 10 inches per annum: off South Africa the Trades blow in a south-easterly direction, and similar conditions are to be noticed in the case of Australia. In all cases there is a general, but not total absence of vegetation: that which does exist has a character of its own. The plants occur in comparative isolation: the leaves are scaly, sword-shaped or tufted,¹ or, more frequently, they are thorny. The familiar cactus, in many varieties, is a typical plant. The roots are enormously long, in order to reach the occasional springs far below the generally shifting surface. The larger deserts are fringed by poor steppes, and the poor steppes in their turn by land fit for pasture. Where underground drainage reaches the surface, oases occur, and make it possible to use certain highways. History, therefore, is written in some of these lands, and the men of North Africa and Arabia have done great things. They have triumphed over physiographic disadvantages, mainly through the influence of a magnificently fanatical religion, and they are almost purely military in their characteristics.

Lands marked 4*b* are of the east tropical or monsoon type. This means that they are affected by the great seasonal winds, called monsoons. Central America has

¹ Marr, *Scientific Study of Scenery*, p. 267.

already been referred to: Brazil has the benefit of the south-east trades: East Africa has a similar set of winds in the south, while, in the north, it shares with India, Indo-China, and the islands near, the double set of monsoon winds. These blow from the polar regions, and become north-easterly owing to the earth's rotation, until counteracted by the south-west or wet monsoon. This is caused by the indraught of air from the ocean to fill up the partial vacuum caused by the rising of heated air in the summer from the centre of the great Asiatic continent. Rain is torrential and vegetation abundant. Rice may be selected as a typical crop. Man is mainly of the black type, except in Eastern Asia, where the yellow race is found. Races belonging to the former are sometimes called the subject races, and the term is correct in so far as it means that they have been conquered, and their lands occupied, by the white man. Whenever they have withstood the progress of civilization, they have suffered, like Stephenson's "coo." Races belonging to the latter comprise the most ancient of cultured peoples. Population is very dense, and the possibilities of the yellow races are unknown. The rise of Japan of late years has been phenomenal, and China, too, seems to be waking up. The Far East has a great future.

7. Lands marked 5 are lofty tropical or sub-tropical mountains.—The main areas are the central Andes and Tibet. Inhabitants are few and vegetation is sparse,

for climate is rigorous. In consequence, the main features only are known, and there is much work for explorers to do yet. Gradually, however, the map is being filled in, and each year brings some fresh triumph of bravery and endurance. The main interest of Tibet is political, and this is the direct result of its geographical position upon the borders of three great empires, the Russian, the Chinese (of which it is a part), and the British. Hence the benevolent attention paid to this ill-favoured region.

8. **Lands marked 6 are Equatorial lowlands.**—Four features may be observed with reference to the three regions marked 6. They are all about the Equator: they are all relatively low in elevation: they are, in consequence, very hot: they have a very abundant rainfall. The result is a very trying climate, much reeking swamp, and a tremendous density of vegetation. The tropical rain-forest is a mass of enormous trees, connected by a tangle of creepers, and teeming with life of all kinds. It is the natural home of degraded and ignorant savages, and, appropriately enough, the Congo has gained for its continent the name of "Darkest Africa." Some very fine illustrations of the vegetation are to be seen in Schimper's *Plant Geography* (Clarendon Press). The indiarubber-tree is one of the chief commodities of commerce. The three regions are the Amazon, the Congo, and the great archipelago which connects Asia and Australia. The January temperature

throughout is the highest in the world, and that of July is only less than the fierce heat of the large inland deserts. Naturally enough, this type of terrain and its inhabitants have not welcomed outsiders with open arms. Its history is often the story, often the tragedy, of exploration, followed by the exploitation of the land for trading purposes. Much may be done, especially in the Amazonian country, by clearing forest land, to give a very large surplus population an abiding home, and the 6 lands will not be forgotten in the history of the future.

9. Summary.—It will be well to recapitulate the preceding paragraphs here, in order that the student may be able to refer rapidly to the major regions with the help of the map at the end of the chapter. We therefore append Mr. Herbertson's brief explanation, slightly revised to meet the requirements of the changes he has made in the illustration. "Premising that the lines on the map are taken as the approximate central lines of the transition areas, we may divide the world up into the following types of natural regions:—

"1. Polar. (*a*) Lowlands (Tundra type); (*b*) Highlands (Ice-cap type).

"2. The cool temperate regions. (*a*) Western margin (West European type); (*b*) Eastern margin (Quebec type); (*c*) Interior lowlands (Siberian type); (*d*) Interior mountain area (Altai type).

"3. The warm temperate regions. (*a*) Western margin

with winter rains (Mediterranean type); (b) Eastern margin with summer rains (China type); (c) Interior lowlands (Turan type); (d) The plateau (Iran type).

"4. (a) The west tropical deserts (Sahara type); (b) East tropical lands (Monsoon type).

"5. Lofty tropical or sub-tropical mountains (Tibetan type).

"6. Equatorial lowlands (Amazon type)."

10. **Warnings.**—It must be carefully remembered that, though we have briefly sketched the varying occupations of men who live in diverse parts of the world, there is a distinct danger of overrating the effect of environment upon man. It is unsafe, too, to say that certain causes produce similar effects wherever they are found. This is very far from being the case. It is most interesting to trace the way in which the ancient Athenians cultivated the artistic and the beautiful, encouraged by their maritime position, their salubrious climate, and their familiarity with beautiful scenery. We look in vain for those qualities to-day, though physical features remain unchanged. Again, Bacon says:¹ "It is manifest that the northern tract of the world is in nature the more martial region, . . . in respect of the cold of the northern parts, which is that, which without the aid of discipline, doth make the bodies hardest and the courage warmest." This is a very inviting statement, but it will not for a moment

¹ Essay lviii.

bear the test of history, ancient or modern. The Romans and the Saracens only need to be cited to dispel such ideas. The Zulus and the Matabili, the reckless heroes of the Sudan, the Mahrattas, who conquered from Poona to the Indus, the Ghurkas, the Sikhs, the Japanese, all contradict the statement. "The men of Cornwall and Kent are no whit inferior in any respect to the dwellers north of the Highland line, and never have been so. In the American war the men from Texas, Georgia and Carolina fought far better man for man, with inferior weapons and resources, than the men from Boston, New York, Chicago or Pittsburg."¹ The Russians in 1877 were far surpassed, says an Italian authority, Carlo Porro, by Asiatic Turks in staying power during the hardships of that campaign. A bad climate cannot destroy the good of religion or true patriotism, nor will a good one in any way "avail licentious monarchies or corrupt democracies." Indian hill tribes vary enormously. The people of Scinde and Kashmir are far inferior to the Beluchis, Pathans, and Dogras. Plains produce heroes and patriots as well as mountains. Poland is an instance. It may be said that the Prussians owe their strong position, in a military, commercial, and intellectual sense, to organization; but the Red Indians of the Mississippi basin can be favourably compared with any race of any time. The Chukchis of Bering Strait will risk their lives in

¹ Maguire, *Military Geography*.

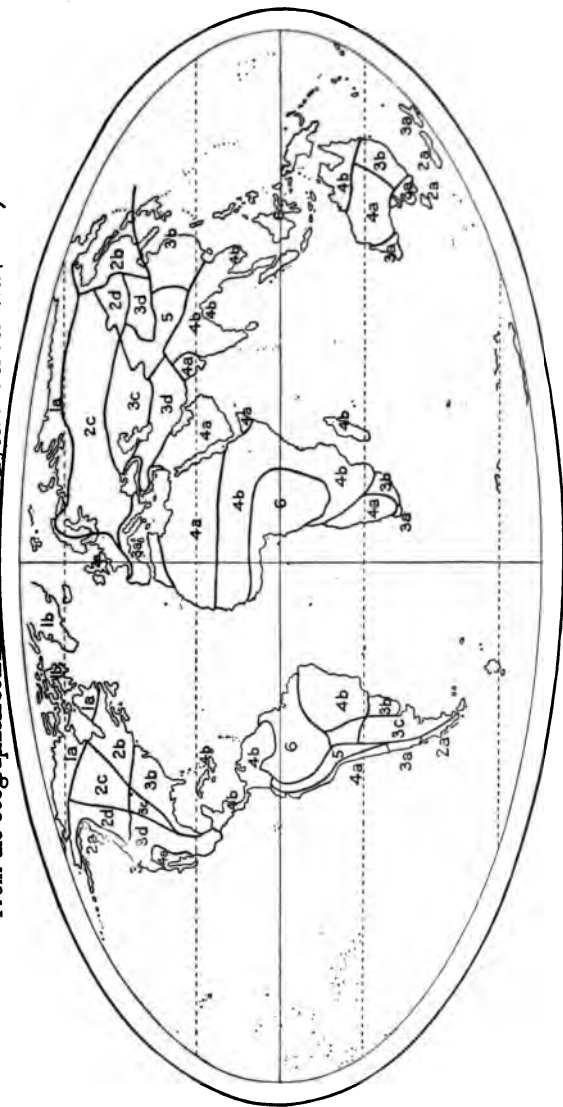
heavy seas in their flimsy bidarras, and display in the search for food or skins qualities of seamanship and adventure that would have done credit to a Drake or a Togo.

Yet climate and conditions of life count for something. The Norwegian has a hard struggle for existence: unremitting labour on made ground produces a small crop which may be ruined, for all his care, by heavy rains, and he lives in a gloomy though beautiful land. He has no luxuries; and so we find him somewhat sombre in disposition, but very humane and scrupulously honest. Most peoples who are shut in by mountains are clannish, intolerant of outsiders and, in the state of nature, savage. But enough has been said to show that, while history is profoundly affected by physical features, there are as many exceptions as rules, and one must not be too ready to generalize.

MAJOR NATURAL REGIONS.
From the *Geographical Journal*

By A. J. Herbertson (*revised*).

Plate I.





CHAPTER III

REGIONAL GEOGRAPHY OF EUROPE

1. **The meaning of the term "Europe."**—The term "Europe" is strictly political, and is therefore not altogether satisfactory as denoting a physical division. Roughly speaking, Europe is the western and (on a large scale) peninsular portion of the great land-mass of Eurasia. The great northern plain is scarcely broken by the Ural Mountains. The famous black earth region occupies both sides of the range. The depression which holds the Caspian Sea also contains the Aral. The west-east series of mountain ranges extends without a break from Cape Finisterre to Kamchatka.¹ The oft-quoted Manytch Depression, too, is a most unsatisfactory dividing line between two continents.

On the other hand, the long line of the Urals is a very convenient boundary, while the rich soils of Siberia are but little exploited as yet. The political boundary in the Kirghiz region has been settled by the Russian Government, for administrative purposes,

¹ This broad statement may be made more exact by a close study of pp. 463-507 of Suess, *The Face of the Earth*, vol. i.

and after all the Balkans, Rhodope and Caucasus do disappear below the sea. But any eastern and south-eastern bounding line to Europe is unsatisfactory. Stieler's Atlas (Plate VII) puts Baku in Europe. Baku is described and illustrated, however, by A. J. and F. D. Herbertson¹ in the volume on Asia; and in the same work we read,² "the limit between Asia and Europe usually adopted is the Ural Mountains and river, and the crest of the Caucasus west of the Caspian Sea,"—and these are indeed the most reasonable limits, though others might be suggested which are just as suitable. Still, there is no real difficulty in this connection in the present work, and the portion of the world known as Europe is of convenient size for a study such as we undertake here.

Moreover, on other grounds Europe and Asia can easily be shown to be separate entities. The shape of Europe is quite distinctive. Itself a peninsula, it has a northern and southern set of peninsulas, giving all its peoples a fairly ready access to the sea. Its drainage system, owing to the comparatively small area and height of the central mountain range, is totally different from that of Asia. The great Siberian rivers, the Obi, Yenisei and Lena, flow northwards to the inhospitable Arctic. The greatest streams in the

¹ *Descriptive Geography from Original Sources.* Black.

² Introduction, p. xv.

European plain find their way southwards, and are important highways. Europe, too, has no regions of inland drainage like that of the Aral or Lake Balkash or the Tarim Basin; nor does its steppe pass into desert: it is too small. The climate of Asia, however, possesses the most distinctive features. It is altogether one of extremes, while that of the smaller continent is, on the whole, moderate. Sixty-five degrees north latitude means two vastly different things in Norway and on the Yana or Lena. Europe has no Verkhoyansk. Asia has no Mediterranean.

Most distinctive of all, however, is European history. We hope to prove that fact in the course of the succeeding chapters.

2. Regions of Europe.—Owing to the peninsular structure just noticed, several portions of the continent of Europe have shown a tendency to become the homes of separate peoples. For the rest, great nations have striven for the control of the plains, and their efforts have made much of the history which we are to study.

It is most important that a thorough grasp of the main geographical facts be attained before any history is studied. Most especially is this true of the leading routes. Accordingly we draw attention in the first place to four main features:—

i. The north-western fringing highlands of Scandinavia and the British Isles.

ii. The great plain, which includes the lowlands

between Auvergne and Wales in the west, north Germany and the Baltic lands in the middle, and Russia in the east.

iii. The central highlands.

iv. The Mediterranean region, which includes, geologically, geographically and historically, parts of the neighbouring continents of Africa and Asia.

3. **The North-West Highlands.**—The western margin of these highlands falls steeply into the Atlantic, and is highest in the south of Norway. Here summits of over 7000 feet are found in the Dovre Fjeld and the Kjölen Mountains, and the land is unfertile, bleak and sparsely populated. Agriculture is only carried on with difficulty, very often on artificial ground, and the main sources of the little wealth the country contains are to be found in the fishing industry. Rainfall is very heavy. Iron, too, is only abundant on the eastern side. The whole country was heavily glaciated, as the most casual of tourists can hardly fail to realize. The interest of the region is mainly physical. Historically it is centred in the raids and explorations of the Northmen of old, who seem to have been glad to leave their inhospitable country. To-day we have an honest, sober and law-abiding people in possession, lacking, it is true, in the airs and graces of the genial south, and chastened by the hard struggle for existence engendered by their stony, gloomily beautiful domain. The coast is seamed by numberless fjords or drowned valleys, the

Sogne, the Hardanger and the Trondhjem being the most notable in point of size.

Land communication is difficult, and railways are comparatively scarce, especially in Norway, which is practically all highland, of a far more pronounced character than northern Scotland. The principal routes are in Sweden, where there is a larger proportion of lowland, very much seamed, however, by scores of streams flowing south-westwards. The iron mines of the extreme north (Gellivara) and those between Gefle and Upsala (Dannemora) communicate by rail with their ports, and there is an important route from Trondhjem eastwards across the peninsula, while the dense forests are fairly well exploited; but the main activities of Scandinavia, except in quite modern times, have been seaward. Sweden has endeavoured either to control the Baltic or to prevent her natural rival, Russia, from doing so. Norway, not being able to support more than a scanty population, has sent many of her hardy sons to carve out kingdoms over the sea. The root cause of this is the same in the case of all migrations, as will be pointed out in Chapter XIII. Nomadic Asia swarmed into fertile Europe. There has been no temptation for Europe to migrate eastwards. The same principle applies to the history of the Phœnicians.¹

4. Eastern Europe.—Russia occupies the whole of

¹ See Herbertson, *Senior Geography*, p. 22.

eastern Europe at the present day. The region is remarkably uniform, and is an almost unbroken plain, open on the north to the Arctic regions, and sharply divided from the nearer east by an imposing mountain barrier in the south. The Valdai Hills only reach a height of 1150 feet, while the long Ural range rises to 5400 feet in latitude 54°. Routes are numerous and easy, and centre on Moscow. From this point run railways to Warsaw and Germany, to St. Petersburg, to Nicolaiev, Sevastopol and Rostov (for Baku), to Nizhni Novgorod, and finally to Samara, on the way to Siberia. Reference has already been made to the surface features in Chapter II.¹ In the north there is a fringe of tundra, which gradually merges into coniferous, mixed and deciduous forest. The southern parts are steppe, partly of a highly productive type, producing magnificent wheat, but the lands fringing the Caspian to the north and east are a saline wilderness. The Urals are rich in minerals, coal, iron, copper, platinum and gold, while the Donets and the Tula districts also have an important coal and iron output. The supplies of wheat, dairy produce, flax and timber possessed by Russia are enormous, while the Trans-Caucasian country abounds in mineral oil.

The rivers of Russia are of noble proportions; but they all have the serious drawback of having to discharge their waters into inland seas, except, indeed,

¹ Page 14.



those which flow into the oft-frozen Arctic. This lack of ready communication with the outer oceans is the central fact of the modern history of Russia.¹ The northern Dvina flows into the White Sea, with Archangel at its mouth. This port has to procure its supplies of grain, vegetables and cattle from a distance, and tallow, skins and furs are prepared in the district. The western Dvina passes Vitebsk on its way to the Gulf of Riga, and taps a district important for its flax, linseed, rye, barley and hemp, together with the usual products of the large pine forests. The Dniepr, joined by the swampy² Pripet, drains Little Russia and South Russia. Kiev, Ekaterinoslav and Kherson stand on its banks. The Volga is the first of Russian rivers. It is the longest and has the largest volume of water of any in Europe. Rising in a peat bog in the Valdai Hills, it flows in an easterly direction, the Oka joining it at Nizhni Novgorod. At Kazan it bends southward, with heights on the right bank, and a level plain on the left, across which the Kama flows. After leaving Simbirsk it makes an abrupt bend beneath the heights, with Samara on the lower bank. Saratov is the next place of importance, and the stream finally winds by many devious courses across the low plains of Astrakhan, the town of that name standing on the delta in a position similar to that of New Orleans on the Mississippi.

5. Central Europe: the Plain.—The Russian plain

¹ Chapter XI. ² Much of this land has been reclaimed.

narrows down in the west as the sea approaches the central highlands, and is crossed by a series of very important rivers. To the north its analogy is the shallow Baltic Sea, with the flatter parts of Sweden on the other side. The basin of the Vistula is largely taken up by Poland. Cracow is in the middle of a salt-producing region immediately north of the Carpathians, but lower down the land is not very productive, and towns and routes are few, with the exception of Warsaw, a most important railway centre. The stream enters Prussia near Thorn, a notable fortress, and reaches the sea to the east of Danzig. The Oder has seen stirring events. Its upper basin is Silesia, a land rudely torn away from Austria by Frederick the Great. Troppau, Neisse, Glatz, Schweidnitz, Liegnitz, and, above all, Breslau, are in this country.¹ Lower down, the Oder is an important line for the defence of Berlin against Russia. Frankfurt and Küstrin are the great *points d'appui*, and the bloody fields of Zorndorf and Künersdorf attest their importance. Stettin stands on the edge of the Pomeranian Haff, formed by the meeting of the sea and the river. Along this coast (Mecklenburg) stand the celebrated old Hansa towns of Wismar, Rostock and Lübeck.

The next river to the west is the Elbe. We will not anticipate what we have to say in Chapters VI and VII: but it will suffice to point out that upon portions

¹ 1740-1763.

of this beautiful stream has focussed a very great part of the history of Central Europe. Bohemia occupies the highest reaches of the Elbe and Moldau. Prag is the great centre. The river breaks through the Erz Gebirge and enters Saxony on its way to Dresden. Dessau is lower down, and an important bend is occupied by the great fortress of Magdeburg, masking Berlin on the west. Things are then comparatively uninteresting until the estuary begins at Hamburg-Altona, one of the most considerable ports on the face of the globe.

The Weser is a less momentous stream. Minden, Verden, and Bremen are on its banks; and the mountainous districts of Hesse, Kassel, Brunswick and Lippe are on either side, with Hanover astride of its lowest course.

The Rhine is fully treated in Chapter VI.

The lowlands are extensively cultivated. Wheat is grown in the west, hemp and flax round the Baltic, and rye in the poorer soils of the east. The beetroot and the potato are pretty general; scientific ingenuity has helped to make up in large measure for the poverty of the ground. Timber is abundant in the east, while all the principal minerals are common in the whole of Central Europe.

6. Central Europe: the Uplands.—The upland regions to the north of the great central mountain barrier form a group of lands of great complexity. The core of the

whole is the Palæozoic massif of Bohemia, against which the stupendous mountain-foldings of Tertiary times pushed in vain, and were compelled to bend round its fringes. The Alps and the Carpathians curve round the southern flanks, while the Jura ranges, roughly parallel to the former, skirt the Black Forest, another ancient massif, and, meeting the western edges of the Bohemian Forest, bend northward in Franconia. The Vosges and the Black Forest were once a single block, the break being caused by the insinking of the Rhine rift valley. To the west of the Vosges Burgundy and Lothringen¹ are occupied by another series of Jurassic rocks, which reach the Ardennes and the chalk slopes of Champagne. The Hardt, Odenwald and the heights of Thuringia are, like our Midlands, Triassic,² and are pierced by younger eruption masses, while the Ardennes, Eifel, and Harz are Silurian, and correspond in age to our Welsh highlands. Far away to the west, across the Rhone, lie the old volcanoes of Auvergne, coming through a mass of ancient crystalline rock sloping gently to the north-west.

The northern drainage has just been discussed. Southwards flows the Rhone, an Alpine stream, joined by the Saône, which has its origin in the Jura. Lyon marks the confluence, and the basin is a tongue of land with Mediterranean characteristics thrust into the heart of north-west Europe. The Loire and the Seine,

¹ Lorraine.


² "New Red Sandstone," etc.

with many of their tributaries, rise in Auvergne and Burgundy, and eventually reach the Bay of Biscay and the Channel respectively. The Seine has Paris on its banks, a city in which more than in any other, in any land, has centred the life of kingdom, empire and republic. The historical geography of Paris is that of France. (See Chapter X.) Rouen is farther down the river. The Loire, too, is an important waterway, with Orleans, Nantes and St. Nazaire belonging to its system; and so is the Garonne, in a less degree. The whole of the western portion of Central Europe has wine districts dotted about it: it is sufficient to mention hock and Moselle of German production; "Burgundy," the champagne of Reims and Epernay, and the claret of Bordeaux. Coal and iron are abundant, especially in Germany, and the chief manufacturing districts are to be found in latitude 50° to 52° in Germany and the Netherlands, and round Paris, Rouen, Nantes, Bordeaux, Lyon, and Le Creusot.

7. The Central Mountain Barrier: the Alps.—South of the region just described there stretches a long succession of mountain ranges, with a general west-east direction. The Cantabrian Mountains and the Pyrenees strike across the north of Spain from sea to sea, and on the other side of the Rhone the Alps make a great curve from the Gulf of Genoa through Switzerland to Austria. These have a central core of ancient crystalline rock flanked, speaking quite generally, by more

and more recent limestone ridges to north and south.

The drainage system, taken generally, is not complex. The Garonne rises to the east of Pic Nethou in the Pyrenees, and is joined on its right bank by a great number of tributaries flowing from the Auvergne Plateau, such as the Lot and the Dordogne. The Rhone has its origin in a large glacier at the eastern end of the Bernese Alps, and flows rapidly in a steep valley past Visp, Sion and Martigny to Lake Geneva, whence it issues, duly purified, to meet the Saône at Lyon. Its chief affluents are Alpine—the Isère, the Drôme and the Durance. Montpellier, Nîmes, Arles, and Avignon fringe its inhospitable delta, Marseille and Toulon being away to the east. Down the opposite slopes flow the Italian streams to the Po,—the Tanaro, the Dora Riparia, the Dora Baltea, the Ticino, the Adda, the Oglio, the Mincio, and the Adige, an independent stream. The passes connecting these are dealt with in Chapter VIII. The Swiss rivers mostly belong to the Rhine system. The Aar receives the surplus waters of the lakes of Neuchâtel and Bienne, from the Zihl, and itself drains the lakes of Thun and Brienz. By means of the Reuss, it takes the overflow of Lucerne, Zug, Baldagger and other lesser sheets of water, while the Limmat, which joins the Aar just before its confluence with the Rhine, flows by way of the lakes of Wallenstadt and Zürich. The main



stream rises near the Rhone source by Mount St. Gotthard, flowing in exactly the opposite direction, *i. e.*, nearly north-east. Bending towards the north at Chur it traverses Lake Constance (Boden See), and passes Schaffhausen and Waldshut before it enters its Rift valley a few miles north of Basle. The Iller, Lech, Isar and Inn carve their way to the Bavarian Danube; the Raab rises near Grätz in Styria, while the Mur-Drave and Save wind through many miles of gorge and valley before they debouch to the plains of Hungary, Croatia and Slavonia.

8. The Central Mountain Barrier. Eastern Portion.—

Beyond the Alps is a large and fertile plain drained by the Middle Danube, and enclosed by the Carpathians. These are the continuation of the Alps, running in a deep curve from the Gap of Deveny to the Iron Gate. The Little Carpathians are the connecting link, between the March and the Waag, with the low Jablunka Pass, giving access to Silesia. The central zone of ancient rock is continued in the Beskid Mountains; but the outer ring of limestone crags is only a faint reproduction of the well-developed outer limestone Alps. The beautiful High Tatra (8700 feet) can be compared with the aiguilles of Mont Blanc, and more to the east the range makes a splendid curve, fringing the lands drained by Dniestr, Pruth and Sereth, and finally coming back westwards to the north of fertile Romania. The inner curve is bounded by lines of

fracture surrounding the great area of depression which is the plain of Hungary.¹ This is drained by the Danube and its noble affluents the Drave, the Save (running in at Belgrad), and the Theiss. East of the Moravian Gate passes are few and unimportant, a most notable fact, as will be shown in Chapter XII. Vienna stands where the Alps merge into the Carpathians, Buda-Pest at the Hungarian Gate, between the Bakony mountains and the irregular heights farther east. Belgrad is the key to the Middle Danube.

South of the Iron Gate the great river winds majestically to the Black Sea. Widin, Plevna, Ruschuk, Bucarest, Silistria, Galatz—these are names which attest the strategic importance of the Lower Danube. A few miles to the south the Balkans separate Bulgaria from Eastern Rumelia. The Shipka Pass, Shumla and Varna are interesting points. The Yaila mountains of the Crimea and the great Caucasus range continue the barrier into Asia, while southwards from Servia runs the Rhodope to the Ægean Sea. Between it and the Balkans is the Orient Express route from Belgrad. It “goes by the Morava and Nishava valleys into the Sofia basin, tunnels through the Maritsa, avoiding the longer route by Trajan’s Gate, follows the main Maritsa valley past Philippopolis to Adrianople, and is continued east by the valley of a tributary rising near the

¹ Partsch, *Central Europe*, p. 51.

Black Sea to Constantinople, the key both of the Black Sea and of the land route to Asia."¹

Finally, the eastern Alps are continued along the Adriatic by the Karst lands. This is a region of limestone rocks mainly of Cretaceous (chalk) age. In the troughs between the folds lie more recent sandstones, which, unlike the limestone, retain water. The rainfall hereabouts is very heavy, but the water quickly disappears into the clefts and holes of the eroded rock, and fails to benefit the land. The drainage is mainly underground, as (under precisely similar conditions) in the limestone parts of Derbyshire. The Dinaric Alps rise to the south-east, followed by the mountains of Albania and the Pindus range, while across the Gulf of Corinth a confused series of heights disappears into the Ionian Sea. Greece repeats the Karst conditions just referred to, in a less pronounced fashion.


9. The Mediterranean.—The great link between Europe, Africa and Asia is the Mediterranean Sea, with its two well-marked basins, eastern and western. The latter is almost entirely enclosed by mountains. Westward from Tunis run the parallel ranges of the Atlas, which turn abruptly northwards past Tetuan and Ceuta. Gibraltar forms an undoubted link with Africa,² and the Betic Cordillera (Sierra Nevada) continues the

¹ Herbertson, *Senior Geography*, p. 29.

² Suess, *The Face of the Earth*, vol. i., p. 230.

curve into Spain. The edge of the Meseta or Iberian massif reaches the sea with scarcely a break as far as the Pyrenees. The Gate of Carcassonne gives access to southern France, and the edge of the Cevennes and the western outliers of the Alps admit the Rhone between them to the Lion Gulf. The Alps and Apennines continue the circuit past Naples and Calabria to Messina and Palermo, and a narrow gap of sea, watched by the fortress of Malta, brings us back to Tunis. This large basin is in its turn pierced by the ancient crust-block extending from Tuscany through Elba and Corsica to Sardinia. The eastern basin is much more complex in structure than the western. The northern coasts are pierced by long gulfs, the Adriatic Sea with its counterpart, the plain of Lombardy; the Gulf of Corinth; the island-studded Ægean, leading by the Dardanelles, the Sea of Marmara and the Bosphorus to the Black Sea; the Gulf of Adalia, and the Gulf of Alexandretta. To the east rise the heights of Lebanon and Palestine, leading to the Syrian desert, and the whole of the southern shores consist of the low margin of the Great Sahara, penetrated by the Nile.

The climate of the Mediterranean lands is quite distinctive. (See Chapter II, 3a.) The summers are hot and dry, and the winters are fairly rainy. Vegetation is therefore of a type capable of resisting heat and drought, evergreens of the dark fleshy-leaved type being characteristic. The olive and evergreen oak



flourish, and at higher altitudes the Spanish chestnut and the walnut. Where irrigation is possible, wheat is very fine, and rice has been introduced into well-watered Lombardy with considerable success. Fisheries give considerable returns, but cannot be compared with those of the northern seas.

10. **Summary.**—Europe consists, then, of (i) the north-west fringing highlands, (ii) the great plain, (iii) the highlands of Central Europe, (iv) the central mountain barrier, (v) the Mediterranean region. Climatic and vegetation regions can be distinguished on slightly different lines. Eastern Europe is the land of extremes, easily divisible into tundra, taiga and steppe. North-western Europe is a land comfortably habitable at all seasons, where man's activities seldom suffer interruption. Southern Europe must be extended to include the whole Mediterranean region, with its semi-tropical temperature and distinctive rainfall. The longest rivers flow into inland seas, and of the rest, the most important are those which reach the North Sea.

CHAPTER IV

THE MEDITERRANEAN REGION

1. **Maritime interest of the Mediterranean.**—The earliest interest of the Mediterranean region was certainly maritime. Much is made, and rightly too, of the work of the Phoenicians, who had important trading bases at Tyre, Carthage and Marseille. These enterprising mariners are known to have pushed their trade far to the north of the Atlantic, and possibly right round the coasts of Africa. In the days, too, of the Greek city states Athens was for many years the predominant power in the Balkan Peninsula, absorbing many of the islands of the Ægean in her empire and bidding fair to gain entry into the western basin by the capture of Syracuse. This siege, however, failed, and the power which had paralyzed the Persian invasion at Salamis¹ was crushed by Sparta through having thrown away the best of her navy in the Sicilian expedition.² Similar neglect or loss of the command of this sea led to the ruin of Pompey at Pharsalia in 48 B.C. and Mark Antony at Actium seventeen years after.

¹ 480 B.C.

² 413 B.C.

A great deal of importance, too, has always attached to the islands of the Mediterranean. As the focus of history has moved westwards, from the Nearer East to North-West Europe, so the Eastern islands have lost their celebrity, which has been transferred to those of the other basin. In early times, the affairs of the greater islands in the Ægean loomed large in current events. Crete was once great: Rhodes, Samos, Naxos, Cyprus occupied a proud position. In after years it was Malta and Minorca that filled the public eye. Sicily was exceedingly important till Malta took its place.

At the close of the Dark Ages Genoa and Venice became the great trading centres whence the luxuries of the East were transmitted to the cities of the Hanseatic League, and so to Western and Northern Europe. Venice, indeed, became the bulwark of Christendom against the Turk, and prevented Moslem aggression westwards by the great victory of Lepanto in 1571. The discovery of America shifted the axis of civilization, trade and strategy. Spain became the *point d'appui*, and the struggle between her and England was waged in the New and Old Worlds alike. The capture of Gibraltar in 1704 led the way to the occupation of Malta in 1798.

2. **The Shores.**—The settlements all along the Levant coast have figured with some distinction in the history of the world. Troy is a case in point. Smyrna,

Adalia, Sidon, Tyre, Joppa have played their part. Acre is interesting to us. Richard Cœur de Lion helped to storm it during the third Crusade. Sir Sidney Smith helped the Turks to keep it out of Napoleon's hands in 1799, and in 1840 the march of Ibrahim Pasha was checked by our bombardment of the town, and Asiatic Turkey, perhaps even Constantinople, saved. Corfu was a considerable British fortress till we gave it up to Greece in 1864. Napoleon always coveted it.

In the West, Toulon claims attention. We were unsuccessful there in the early days of the French Revolution, when Napoleon sprang into fame, and for months and years we blockaded it in order to prevent its fleet from combining with that of Brest in order to make a descent upon our shores. Barcelona and Cartagena, not to mention Gibraltar, are worthy of note, while Algiers, from the natural strength of its position, has exerted a considerable influence upon events. For ages it was a hotbed of pirates, till Pellew broke their power in 1816. France afterwards annexed it, much to her own advantage. Carthage had a brief but brilliant career. Occupying a midway position in the Mediterranean, she contested with Rome the possession of Sicily, and fell in the attempt.

The Nile mouths have at all times been important as giving access to Egypt. Alexandria has a long and chequered history. The battle of Aboukir Bay, not far

off, and the victory of Abercromby sealed up Bonaparte's army in Egypt, and the bombardment of the city in 1882 made the success of Tel-el-Kebir possible.

3. **Constantinople.**—Few cities in the world have ever enjoyed such a distinguished place in history, and for so long a period, as Constantinople. It is the stepping-stone from west to east, and the passage-way from north to south. It occupied, in the earliest times, a most important position on the overland route to Asia Minor, Persia and India, and was a great mart for the luxuries of the East—carpets, silks, spices, drugs, and many such other commodities. The Greek colony of Byzantium was founded here about 700 B.C., and the Roman Constantine made it the capital of his empire. From that time the incursions of the barbarians who had poured from the Black Sea upon the Mediterranean, ceased. “In 450 the Huns attacked it: in 553 the Huns and Slavs: in 626 the Persians. It was besieged by the Arabs seven times between 668 and 782, by the Russians four times, but unsuccessfully, from 865 to 1043, and by the Hungarians in 924.” The Crusaders and Venetians were the first to reduce it. They sacked it in 1204, and took a fabulous amount of spoil. The Latins were driven out in 1260 by Michael Palæologus, and the Sultan Amurath vainly tried to take it in 1422. At last the Turks reduced it in 1453, and the influence of geography upon history cannot be more clearly shown than by the fact that this capture

proved to be one of the most important events of all time.


The fall of Constantinople, indeed, marks the inauguration of a new epoch in the world's history. One immediate result was the scattering of its Greek scholars all over Europe. This led to the dissemination of a new learning, and, indeed, to that species of free-thinking which caused the great revolt against the Roman Church in the sixteenth century.¹ Again, the Turks, by establishing themselves west of the Bosphorus, closed a great trade route to Christian commerce. In order to open up the way to the East and secure the exceedingly profitable trade in silks, spices, and other luxuries, the enterprise of man was directed into new channels, and the age of exploration began. The Cape was doubled; Africa was circumnavigated; the sea route to India was discovered; and Columbus' great attempt to reach India westwards by sea was frustrated by the interposition of an obstacle—the American islands and continent. Such was the new era which the year 1453 initiated.

In modern times Constantinople has been the apple of discord among European nations. The Eastern question, as it is called, has arisen owing to the long-continued decay, and the oft-impending fall, of the Ottoman Empire. The sick man still lives, and his health is assiduously fostered by the somewhat unreasoning enemies of Russia.

¹ Cf. introduction to Cromwell's Letters in *Everyman's Library*.

A glance at the map (Plate II) will show why. The dominions of Austria might easily, with a little good fortune, have pushed their way to the Black Sea. Russia has proved more formidable. In 1696 the capture of Azov marked her entrance into the politics of South-East Europe, while Austria, at the Peace of Carlowitz in 1699, thrust her frontier as far as the Carpathians and (except for Temesvar) the Danube. The peace of Kutchuk-Kainardji in 1774 definitely showed that Russia was to be reckoned with in all Near Eastern matters. France and Germany have repeatedly showed their benevolent interest in the Golden Horn, especially France; while to England the matter became of pressing importance when the Suez Canal route to India was opened. The possession of Constantinople by any one but effete Turkey is held to be a direct menace to our magnificently appointed communications with India. In 1854 a useless and ill-considered war in the Crimea, intended to cripple the Muscovite power in the South, ended in the capture of Sevastopol; but in 1878 the Russians nearly reached Constantinople, being finally checked by the great Berlin Treaty which parcelled out the Balkan Peninsula into its present political divisions.

To-day, Russia is exhausted by her efforts in the Japanese war and by great internal troubles, and has concluded what seems to be a lasting arrangement with England (1907), and the question of the control of



Constantinople slumbers for a time at least. Sufficient has, we hope, been said to show what a vast extent geographical position sometimes exerts upon the trend of events.¹


4. **The Rise of Islam.**—The career of the great Mahomet has had a vast influence upon the control of the Mediterranean lands. The successes of his followers tend to show how little reliance can at times be placed upon the tendencies which geography would have us notice. For a long time nothing could stop these conquering armies. By sea and by land they raged eastwards and westwards, showing a devotion and self-sacrifice in battle which has never been excelled. Was it religion? The same success did not attend the Christian Crusades, mainly because the same spirit of unity, which urged the Moslems to conquest, did not actuate the Christians. Gibbon puts the matter very succinctly and well. "From all sides," he says, "the roving Arabs were allured to the standard of *religion and plunder*." A religion which can convince a man that the purely devilish in him is justifiable, nay commendable, is likely to make more headway with the naturally savage community than one which preaches meekness and self-abnegation. "The sword," says Mahomet, "is the key of heaven and hell : a drop of blood shed in the cause of God, a night spent in arms, is of more avail than two months of fasting and prayer: whoso-

¹ For further treatment of this subject, see Chapters XI and XII.

ever falls in battle, his sins are forgiven ; at the day of judgment his wounds shall be resplendent as vermillion, and odoriferous as musk ; and the loss of his limbs shall be supplied by the wings of angels and cherubim."

We must turn from geography, then, for the root cause of the astounding success of Islam ; but geography will help us in tracing its progress. It was in Arabia that conquest began. The Jews there were subdued by the year 627, and after the death of the prophet in 632 expansion began in real earnest. Persia first felt the weight of the power of the Moslems, and the battles of Cadesia, Jalula and Nehavend reduced their country. The conquerors gradually worked northwards towards the Caspian, and eastwards they marched, taking Herat, Merv and Balkh, and "their successful leader neither halted nor reposed till his foaming cavalry had tasted the waters of the Oxus."¹ Soon the first Mahometan banner was displayed upon the banks of the Indus itself. In the west, Damascus fell in 633, and Jerusalem, Aleppo and Antioch did not survive many years longer. The map will show Egypt as the next likely conquest. Anatolia, being mountainous, escaped for a short time, while the desert of Sinai had no terrors for Arabs. So it was that Alexandria fell immediately, and its grand library was burned (638). By this time armies had penetrated northwards as far as the Black Sea ; on reaching the banks of the Mediterranean, the

¹ The Amu Daria, discharging its waters into the Aral Sea.



western bounds of Syria, the desert tribes equipped a huge fleet of ships. The Imperial navy of the Romans fled before them, and Cyprus, Rhodes and some of the Cyclades were ravaged.

From Egypt the Moslems travelled along the littoral of Northern Africa. The sandy wastes had few terrors for them, and in due course the army was before the walls of Tripoli. Another force some years later penetrated Morocco. In 709 Spain was entered, and Christianity itself was threatened. The crossing seems to have been from Ceuta to the cape which is named after Tarif,¹ the Mahometan chief. In the following spring a larger force landed, under the command of Tarik, at Gibraltar (Gebel al Tarik). It will be seen from the map that the fertile plain of Andalusia gives a promising entry into the south of Spain; indeed, the student can hardly have failed to notice how the invading hosts were directed in the paths just traced by the necessity of keeping to the coast, away from the awful desert, and how, on reaching the western confines of Morocco, they were guided into Europe by accounts they must have heard of its fertility and mineral wealth. Treachery seems to have been the cause of the defeat of an enormous Christian army near Xeres, and the victors passed from Cordova and the upper Guadalquivir, near Baylen (compare the Spanish victory over the French here in 1808), through the Sierra Morena to

¹ Cape Tarifa.

Toledo, which capitulated. They journeyed through Leon and Castile to the sea at Gijon, near Oviedo. Thus had most of the peninsula submitted in a few months. Musa followed Tarik, and began to reduce places which his predecessor had missed, such as Seville, and Merida on the Guadiana. The north-east was not neglected, and Saragossa and Barcelona were occupied, the Goths being pursued beyond the Pyrenees into Languedoc. Musa took back treasure even from Narbonne and Carcassonne. Later, Gaul began to feel the weight of invasion, and Burgundy was ravaged in 725. The turning-point, however, came in 732, when Charles Martel, Mayor of the Palace, beat back the Arabs at Poitiers—a contest sometimes named after Tours, a city about sixty miles away. Many hard battles had yet to be fought, however. Charles won other successes, and in Spain, Alfonso, King of the Asturias, began a series of successful forays against the common enemy. Pepin took Narbonne in 759, a most vitally important fortress in all times, and freed the north side of the Pyrenees. So the Asiatics were gradually thrust back from the heart of Christendom, and finally, in the reign of Ferdinand and Isabella, from Western Europe altogether. Crete and Sicily, too, not to mention Rome itself, came temporarily, at a later date, under the heel of Islam. The history of Turkish invasions of the Danube Lands will be found in Chapter VII.

5. **The Crusades.**—Before treating of the modern

importance of the Mediterranean, we give one further example illustrative of its use as a passage-way by our ancestors, viz. the Third Crusade. The Christian forces travelled overland as a rule, but their leaders were usually alive to the advantages of a sea passage also. Before taking the Third Crusade in some detail, we will point out that Aigues Mortes¹ was used as starting-point in 1248 and 1270. Venice, Triest and the Illyrian and Balkan ports were passed in 1203. Limasol in Cyprus, affording an easy descent upon Acre, saw fleets at anchor on at least four occasions. Antioch was attacked from Adalia in 1148, and, next to Jerusalem itself, Acre was sought more than any other stronghold, as being within easy striking distance of the Holy City, as well as a convenient base for supplies from Europe. There was, indeed, a regular system of migration seasons, the *passagium Martii* and the *passagium Augusti* bringing Crusaders to the shores of Syria at definite periods.

Saladin, the most enlightened of Moslem antagonists, prepared to resist the venture in 1190 on sea as well as land. Cœur de Lion's main fleet started from the harbours of England, Normandy, Brittany and Poitou after Easter of that year. They rounded Finisterre and reached Lisbon after some very rough handling by the elements, and passed the straits at the beginning of August. Coasting Spain by Tarragona and Barcelona,

¹ Montpellier, west of the Rhone delta.

they reached Marseille, proceeding thence to Genoa, Pisa and Naples, and so through the Straits of Messina. Philip sailed for Acre, followed later by Richard, who landed in Cyprus, reduced its Emperor Isaac to submission, and married Berengaria of Navarre at Limasol. On the way thence he took a great Saracen vessel (see Vol. I, p. 143), laden with supplies for Acre, thus accelerating the fall of that port. This reminds us of the similar feat performed by Sir Sydney Smith in 1799, which largely contributed to causing Bonaparte to miss what he was pleased to call his "destiny." After the fall of Acre Cœur de Lion marched along the coast to Cæsarea, and thence to Arsuf, on the sea-shore a few miles north of Jaffa, when he won his last success. He reached Beit Nûba, 13 miles north-west of Jerusalem, in December 1191, and began to retire in the following month.

6. Position of Egypt.—In modern times, as in ancient, Egypt has occupied a prominent commercial and strategic position as regards Arabia and India. The Arabs used to unlade their cargoes near Kosseir, and transported them overland to Thebes (lat. 26°), thus avoiding the northerly winds which sweep down the Egyptian coasts. Ptolemy Philadelphus (285–247 B.C.) did much to concentrate the Eastern trade at Alexandria. He reopened the ancient cutting from Bubastis (Nile Delta) to the Bitter Lakes, and contemplated continuing the canal to the Suez Gulf. Near the entrance to the Gulf he

Algeria and has a footing in Morocco, besides her important sea-board round the Lion Gulf. Corsica, too, is hers. Spain owns a long and important stretch of coast, robbed of much of its usefulness by our possession of Gibraltar, while Greece, Italy and Turkey, and in an indirect manner, Austria, all have a share in the northern and eastern littoral.

8. **General.**—With so many powerful states sharing the territorial waters, it may readily be seen that the Mediterranean Sea has abated no jot of the great importance it possessed in early times. The Phœnicians were succeeded by the Romans, and, upon the decay of the Empire, the Goths and Vandals swarmed upon its waters and occupied its shores. In medieval times, when the wave of Mahometan migration had recoiled from Western Europe and had retired beyond the Carpathians, Spain and the Italian republics became the great controlling powers, till the rise of France led to the world-wide struggle with Britain, to end with the greatest of the prizes which the Mediterranean can afford in our hands, France securing, afterwards, as much as she could of the residue of the spoil. The Mediterranean, in fact, is the connecting link between the history of Africa and Asia and Europe in no less degree than it is the pivot of their geography.

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CHAPTER V

THE BALTIC SEA

1. **Comparison with the Mediterranean.**—An excellent instance of the main principles we are studying in this volume is afforded by a comparison of the physical and historical interest of the Baltic and Mediterranean seas. It must be remembered all the time that as much may be learned negatively, in the consideration of Historical Geography, as positively. In the present instance we must not push fact and conclusion too far, although the Baltic can teach us a good deal. It will be noticed that the northern sea is shallow, nowhere reaching 500 metres. The Mediterranean reaches 3731 metres in the Tyrrhenian basin, and 4404 in the Ionian. The depths, as is always the case, answer to the heights. Round the Mediterranean tower high mountains: the Baltic lands are low. This fact is not so important for our purpose as might be expected, as the southern peninsulas are full of good harbours, and the coasts of Africa, Syria and Asia Minor are not inhospitable. Moreover, access to the sea is gained by a number of well-defined and important gaps. Both seas, then, abound in good harbours. A great difference, however

lies in the respective amounts of evaporation. The strength of the southern sun causes the loss of a good deal of moisture, leaving a larger proportion of salt in the Mediterranean than exists in the Baltic. The latter sea is therefore very susceptible to frost, and commerce suffers greatly in consequence, especially in Russia and Finland. The Mediterranean is, of course, always open.

The great difference between the two seas, however, is the fact that the Mediterranean is the great high-way linking up the commerce and history of three continents. The Baltic has *direct* communication with comparatively few lands. This fact will emphasize itself as we proceed.

2. Topography of the Baltic.—The Baltic is approached from the North Sea, through the Skagerrak and Cattegat, by traversing the narrow Sound, a somewhat dangerous strait between Zealand and southern Sweden. An alternative route is through the Kaiser Wilhelm Canal to Kiel. Southwards and eastwards the coast is German as far as Memel. In medieval times this littoral was busy with the trade of the Hansa merchants, until the inevitable happened, and the discovery of America and the sea route to India shifted the centre of gravity of the world's commerce. The Hanseatic League did not confine its energies to the German coast. Scandinavia and even London had regular depots, and

their head-quarters was situated in the island of Gothland, at Visby.

Behind this tattered coastline lie the Mecklenburg and Pomeranian Heights, morainic hills dotted with glacial lakes, a land of infertility and partly-drained marshes. The difficulties of communication are not inconsiderable, and population is rather scanty. A series of magnificent rivers rising in the Highlands of Southern Germany carries the enormous traffic of to-day in a westerly direction, mainly out into the North Sea. Hamburg-Altona centralizes it. Stettin, Danzig, Königsberg and Memel are of lesser importance. The coastline turns northwards by the Kürisches Haff, and is Russian as far as Tornea, in latitude 65° north. Breaks occur in the Gulfs of Riga and Finland, the latter having at its head St. Petersburg, guarded by the great fortress of Kronstadt, and connected with it by a narrow channel in the broad Neva estuary, cut to a depth of seven metres.¹ Reval and Helsingfors face each other near the entrance to the Gulf. Sweden has a very long coastline fringing the whole of the western Baltic and the Gulf of Bothnia (the northern basin). Stockholm, magnificently situated, is opposite to the Russian capital.

3. The control of the Baltic.—The history of the Baltic has always centred upon its control, Sweden and

¹ Stieler's *Hand Atlas*, 43 a.

Russia entirely monopolizing attention. The expansion of Russia began in earnest under Peter the Great. Coming to the throne in 1682 at the age of ten, he developed a strong forward policy as he grew up. He visited Western Europe twice, and learned shipbuilding in Holland and on the Thames. The art of war he studied in Vienna. In order to encourage trade he introduced foreigners into Russia: Frenchmen taught the woollen trade, and Englishmen the manufacture of leather. Under Gustavus Adolphus, Sweden had become very powerful: in 1617 the provinces from Finland to Livonia had been ceded by Russia, and an almost chronic struggle with Denmark, unproductive of great results, raged during half the seventeenth century. Charles XII, the great enemy of Russia, first collided with Peter in Esthonia, where the Swedes won the battle of Narva. Ehresfer, in Livonia, saw matters reversed in 1701, a year after. Charles invaded Poland in 1702, taking Cracow and Warsaw while the Russians were inflicting defeat on another of his armies. Livonia, Esthonia, Courland and Vilna were occupied by the Muscovite troops, and three great victories, Kalisch,¹ Lesno² and Poltava³ (1709), decided that Russia should not be extinguished, but should grow into a first-class Power, while Sweden had reached her zenith. The victors followed up their advantage by aiding in clearing the Swedes out of Pomerania, a possession granted

¹ 51° N, 18° E.

² Near Vitebsk.

³ 49° N, 34° E.

them at the Treaty of Westphalia, and subsequently held with difficulty. Finland was conquered by Peter, and Charles XII barely escaped from Stralsund, besieged and taken in 1715 by the Saxons, Danes, Prussians and Russians. The Peace of Nystad finally gave Esthonia, Livonia and part of Finland to Russia. War broke out twenty years later (1741): the Swedes were crushed at Helsingfors, and lost, by the Treaty of Abo, the whole of Finland. Thus the outbreak of the Seven Years' War saw Sweden enfeebled and the Eastern Power gaining strength and territory without interruption.

4. **The Seven Years' War and after.**—In the Seven Years' War Russia played a part of varying activity, inflicting frightful loss upon Frederick the Great, and then withdrawing at the death of Elizabeth. Sweden was hostile to Brandenburg as well, for she remembered the loss of Pomerania; but she only played a feeble part. In 1787, however, a *coup d'état* gave Gustavus III the kingly power he needed, and overthrew the Caps, the party which had coquetted, disastrously, with Russia. The Northern Powers bristled into resistance. Russia was fully occupied with the Turks, and St. Petersburg was defenceless. But the Russian admiral held his own in the naval battle of Hogland, and Muscovite intrigue led to a mutiny of Swedish officers in Finland. "The army was in open mutiny; the fleet was blockaded in Sveaborg; a Russian squadron

occupied the Gulf of Bothnia; a combined Russo-Danish squadron swept the Cattegat; a Danish army was advancing upon Gothenburg. Confusion reigned in the capital, panic in the provinces.”¹ The situation was, however, relieved by the intervention of Prussia and England, Sweden was saved from dismemberment, and peace was made.

During the Napoleonic wars Denmark sided with the French, and Sweden, in 1805, joined the coalition arranged by Pitt. The Danes accordingly lost their fleet and saw their capital bombarded, and the Swedes were deprived of the possessions still left them in Pomerania. The Scandinavian cause was taken up with great vigour when Bernadotte turned against his old master, and Swedish troops played a considerable part in the great battle of Leipsig. In 1815 the Pomeranian question was settled by purchase, Prussia receiving these lands.

5. **Conclusion.**—By the settlement of 1815 Denmark was deprived of Norway, and in 1864 this Power was further mulcted of Schleswig-Holstein. To-day Denmark is in a high state of organization and preparedness; men and women too have fitted themselves physically to defend their fatherland, and this sturdy nation, shorn of slice after slice of territory, still shows a gallant front. In agriculture and in the production of dairy

¹ R. Nisbet Bain, *Gustavus III and his Contemporaries*, ii. 31.

commodities the Danes are unrivalled. Norway, the land granted to Bernadotte and his successors, has broken away from Sweden, and has a monarchy of its own. Sweden is still a large and flourishing country, very progressive of ideas, but content with the western Baltic lands. Russia holds all the eastern coasts, but Finland never has, and never will, take at all gratefully to her rule. Matters there are by no means settled. All the remaining Baltic coast is German, and, judging from the height map, will always remain so. Pomerania belongs physically to Prussia, and Sweden never gained a real hold upon that territory. Poland lost her short strip of coastline, round Danzig, in the First Partition, and so the northern sea remains to-day, after the steady growth of Russia and Prussia, under a strictly normal political control. There are no anomalies.

Copenhagen, Stettin, Riga, St. Petersburg, Helsingfors, Abo and Stockholm connect in the main with Leith and Hull, and, in a less degree, with London and Dundee; but, large though is the commerce in cereals, timber, iron, animals and dairy produce, the Germans, who can do so, send as far as possible *via* Hamburg and the ice-free North Sea. The Baltic will always be a great commercial highway, for enlightened nations people its shores. It has the advantage, too, of being within easy reach of England, the best customer of every nation in the world; but its products

are those of the north and continental east alone, and it affords no outlet to great seas beyond. Hence usefulness will always be somewhat restricted, and the prosperity of its inhabitants correspondingly curtailed.





CHAPTER VI

THE RHINE LANDS AND GERMANY

1. **The Rhine.**—If any part of Europe has “seen life,” it is the Rhine, especially in its middle course. Situated nearly midway between the Paris basin, the nucleus of one great Power, and the German plain, the cradle of another, it has been chafed and fretted by the growing and the strifes of both; it has been the line of resistance of eastern and western armies, and its distracted inhabitants have been hustled into the service of now this, now that leader, till to-day the consolidation of the German peoples has made it one of the brightest jewels in the crown of the Fatherland. But who can say that its affairs are finally settled even now, and that France may not again rally her hosts to the cry “*les limites naturelles*”?

The Historical Geography of the Rhine requires a volume to itself: we shall be compelled here to treat it as lightly as possible. Julius Cæsar operated on its banks and threw a bridge across it; the Huns passed over and back again; the Vandals migrated over its waters; the Frankish kingdom bestrode it; the feeble states of the Holy Roman Empire upon its

banks had their life crushed out by the French and their antagonists in the Thirty Years' War and after; Marlborough passed it on his way to Blenheim; Napoleon thundered over its bridges, to give doggedly back after Leipsig; and in 1870 it was the main line of resistance in the titanic struggle between an Empire which fell and an Empire which rose into being.

Such is the historical interest of this classic stream; we will now describe its course and review some part of its influence upon the annals of the nations.

2. The course of the river.—Though it rises in Switzerland and reaches the sea in Holland, the Rhine is essentially a German stream. Two branches, the Vorder from the St. Gotthard and the Hinter from the Adula Group, unite above Chur, where the direction of flow becomes northerly as far as Lake Constance. Issuing westwards, the river passes the falls of Schaffhausen, and forms the northern boundary of Switzerland as far as Basle. During this part of its course it has received on its left bank the whole of the drainage of the northerly slopes of Switzerland by way of the Aar and its tributary the Reuss. There are no right bank affluents here, as the Danube monopolizes the drainage. After Basle, the Rhine enters the rift valley between the Vosges and the Black Forest. Here is the first important gap in the mountains, the Gate of Burgundy. The French fortress of Belfort guards the passage,

while the route from south to north of Elsass¹ leads through Mülhausen and Colmar to the German stronghold of Strassbourg. Farther down lie Weissenberg, Wörth, Saarbrücken and Forbach, a gate between the Vosges and Hardt leading to Metz on the Mosel.² Karlsruhe is on the right bank, leading to Stuttgart and Württemberg. The Neckar skirts the south of the Odenwald and joins the parent stream at Mannheim. The next tributary, the Main, rises in the Fichtelgebirge, drains Franconia and passes Würzburg and Frankfurt, to join the Rhine at Mainz,³ a most important place, which screens the southern slopes of the Taunus. A further confluence which commands attention is that of the Mosel at Coblenz, facing the immense stronghold of Ehrenbreitstein. These fortresses watch a long trough between the Eifel and Hunsrück on the one side and the Taunus and Westerwald on the other. The confines of France having now been passed, the interest of the river to the student becomes commercial rather than military. Bonn lies a few miles down stream, and Cologne occupies a commanding position both for trade and for war, being the converging point of several lines from the Belgian ports and capital, as well as from Holland.

One of the great coal-fields of the world is now crossed by the Rhine, where the Ruhr flows in. The great Krupp factory at Essen may be cited. To the

¹ Or Alsace.

² Or Moselle.

³ Or Mayence.

south-west coal and iron give Liège and other Belgian towns the source of their wealth. Gradually converging, and never actually meeting, the Rhine and the Meuse¹ traverse more historic ground, or rather the latter does so. Sedan, Mézières and Rocroi at the French or south-western end of the Ardennes; Charleroi and Namur, the latter at the inflowing of the Sambre, Liège and Maastricht have their honourable place in the annals of the past, while the land to the west of them contains Brussels, Ghent and Antwerp. Meanwhile, near Nijmegen, the Rhine loses its individuality, and a number of straggling streams drains Southern Holland before winding across the low land to the sea. Such is the river, the history and the effects of which upon man we have now to study.

3. *Switzerland.*—The comparatively low land between the Bernese Oberland and the Swiss Jura to the south-west, and the Alps of Glarus and the Black Forest to the north-east, deserves some notice as being the cradle of Swiss independence. The lands of the Hapsburgs adjoined the cantons bordering Lake Lucerne. These cantons had formed part of the Duchy of Swabia (Upper Swabia lies just across Lake Constance); but when that Duchy broke up they became virtually independent. Rudolph of Hapsburg (elected Emperor in 1273) sought to bring these lands under his rule, but Schwyz, Uri and Unterwalden took advantage of

¹ Or Maas.

his preoccupation in Austria to form a League. The upshot of it all was an invasion, when the familiar scene of incautious advance through a defile was enacted. The Austrian army was caught in a trap at Morgarten¹ in Zug, and very roughly handled. This was but one of a series of fights which showed that the Swiss were very formidable on their own ground. Other districts gradually joined the League, Lucerne, Zürich, Glarus, Zug, and last of all Bern in 1353. War broke out again, and in 1386 the patriots were able to beat the enemy decisively on comparatively level ground at Sempach. Another victory at Näfels, in the north of Glarus, decided the question of supremacy, and Austria withdrew her claims.

The lesson to be learned from this struggle is the very obvious one of the difficulty of subduing a determined hill people on its own ground. Allowance must, however, be made for the almost traditional fatuity of Austrian generalship, a quality which over and over again has exaggerated the merits of opponents' victories—notably those of Napoleon.

4. Early history of the Middle Rhine.—As there is no real physical barrier between the German plain and what is now France, the question of a political boundary has always been a mixed one, decided only temporarily at any time, and then by the unsatisfactory arbitrament of war. As far as language goes, the

¹ 47° N, 8° E.

Rhine has always been unmistakably Teutonic. Both banks from the Alps to the sea have always been occupied by Teutons, and the French language has penetrated but little into the basin in the west. It is just this indefiniteness of boundary and language which has made the troubled history of the Rhine.

Charlemagne's Empire was at once the extension of the Frankish kingdom and the revival of the Roman Empire of the West. Aachen formed a fairly central capital. In 843 the partition of the territories between the grandsons of the great Emperor led to difficulties at once. Lothar had the central portion with Aachen; but as Mr. George says,¹ "No arrangement in that age was likely to last. After Lothar's death, the whole of Charlemagne's Empire went again and again into the melting-pot." The basin of the Rhone eventually evolved itself into the kingdom of Burgundy. The duchy of Lorraine emerged, to last for many centuries, and other fragments, after many vicissitudes, were collected into the kingdom of Belgium. The whole territory now became hopelessly split up, as a glance at any maps of the political control of Europe from the Treaty of Verdun till 1870 will show.²

The history of the Middle Rhine becomes, then, after the break-up of Charlemagne's Empire, the record of

¹ *Relations of Geography and History*, p. 230.

² See Poole's *Oxford Historical Atlas*.

a collection of small states nervously dragging out a miserable existence between two growing powers, and put upon the rack by both in turn. The Thirty Years' War is a notable instance which we now select. We shall not now confine all our attention to the Rhine.

5. **The Thirty Years' War.**—It will be remembered that the Thirty Years' War began with a petty struggle in Bohemia. This drew the Protestant states of North Germany into the strife in order to prevent the undue aggrandizement of the Empire. The northern armies were driven almost into the sea, but Gustavus Adolphus' landing in Western Pomerania saved the situation. Richelieu approached him with the idea of using him as a fighting tool against the Emperor; but Gustavus dominated the scene while he lived. After his great victory at Breitenfeld in Saxony he made for Erfurt and Würzburg, having stipulated that the French should confine themselves to the left bank of the Rhine. After spending some time at Mainz, in order to encourage the troubled Protestants of the centre and south, he marched to the Danube, but was foiled by the Fabian tactics of Wallenstein, retreated to Saxony, and was killed at Lützen, near Leipsig, the scene of two of Napoleon's battles in 1813.

Now came the opportunity of France. By the war she became the first military Power in Europe, and by the Peace of Westphalia she "was planted securely upon the Rhine and acquired not merely a scientific

frontier for offence and defence in the virgin fortress of Metz, the mountains of the Vosges, and the strongholds of Breisach and Philipsburg, but an incentive to future exertion. . . . The *damnosa hereditas* of the Rhine frontier for France, sanctioned in part by the Peace of Westphalia, has been the chief disturbing element in European politics for nearly two centuries and a half, and the malignancy of its poison shows even now no signs of abatement."¹ The treaty of 1648 put an end to the wars of religion, only to inaugurate the modern states system with its legacy of hatred and bloodshed. The Empire was disintegrated, and only the pomp and show of power remained to it, to be exposed to the laughter of Europe when the Imperial army was hooted off the field of Rossbach.² The Hapsburgs began to lose interest in German affairs, and their policy became dynastic. In North Germany the natural tendency of smaller states to coalesce with larger began to assert itself, and one, Brandenburg, began to take the lead. All these facts have a distinct geographical bearing. The Empire was never a geographical unity, and so could not be a political power. Brandenburg, centrally situated, was able to draw in its neighbours. Magdeburg and Halberstadt on the one hand and Eastern Pomerania on the other were added in 1648, Silesia was basely and perfidiously seized by Frederick the Great in 1740, and Polish Prussia, with its port of Danzig, formed the

¹ Wakeman, *Ascendancy of France*, p. 129. ² 1757.

Prussian spoil at the first partition of Poland. So it was that when the two thieves of Schleswig-Holstein quarrelled in 1866, it was Prussia that was the more consolidated and the better organized, and it was Prussia that took the lead in Germany, once for all, forming the nucleus of the Empire of 1871.

6. **The great wars of Germany: 1813.**—The bearing of the topography of the Middle Rhine upon history may be illustrated by a brief reference to Napoleon's movements in 1813, and to the Franco-German War. In the former instance a great coalition had been formed against the French. Bernadotte crossed the Baltic with 12,000 Swedes. Two separate Prussian armies were formed, the first to act under Bülow with the Swedes and the Russian army of the right and to defend Berlin, the other under Blücher in Silesia to co-operate with the army of the left from Russia. Napoleon invaded Saxony, and defeated Wittgenstein at Lützen.¹ In the same month he defeated the whole army of Silesia at Bautzen, in the extreme east of Saxony, and established his headquarters at Dresden. After the armistice of Plesswitz the allies attempted to concentrate upon Dresden. Oudinot was defeated by Bernadotte at Gross Beeren,² and Blücher overcame Macdonald at the Katzbach.³ A fearful battle then

¹ See par. 5.

² 20 kilom. SSW. of Berlin.

³ Near Liegnitz in Silesia. Cf. Frederick the Great's victory in 1760.

took place at Dresden, in which irreparable loss was inflicted upon the French. Vandamme's army, too, which had penetrated into Bohemia to cut off Schwartzberg's communications, was forced to surrender to the Russians at Kulm.¹ Napoleon then tried to break through and strike at Berlin, but Marshal Ney was defeated by Bernadotte and Bülow at Dennewitz.² The sequel was the terrific fight of Leipsig, when the host of Napoleon suffered total defeat. The remnants of the French broke through the Bavarians at Hanau, near Frankfurt, and eventually found safety behind the Rhine. The invasion of France followed. Blücher, with the army of Silesia, crossed the Rhine in three columns at Koblenz, Mannheim and Mainz. These were to strike along the Mosel. The rest of the proceedings will be noticed in the chapter upon France.

7. The great wars of Germany: 1870.—At the beginning of the Franco-Prussian War the French position was as follows: From Strassbourg to Metz two lines of fortresses, one north-westwards, *via* Bitsch, the other westwards, *via* Nancy, connected France with the Rhine. Strassbourg and Nancy were in their turn connected in rear with Belfort, the entrance to the Burgundy Gate, and with Lyon, while Nancy and

¹ A tiny village between the Mittel Gebirge and the east end of the Erz Gebirge.


² 70 kilom. SW. from Berlin.

Thionville communicated with Paris by two railroads, one passing through Châlons and Epernay, and the other by Mézières and Reims. The German main attack was delivered on Metz and Strassbourg. The fights at Weissenburg and Wörth isolated the latter fortress and endangered the former. Metz, too, was invested, after the awful carnage of Gravelotte, when the French were (with the fatuity which characterized their generalship throughout) withdrawn from ground they had fairly held. McMahon retired to Nancy and Châlons, and from there made a detour by Reims and Rethel, presumably in order to relieve Bazaine. The Germans were at first puzzled by the conduct of a man who could make a long flank march in the face of an army which a child could have located; but when they realized that there was no deep motive behind it all, they attacked him at Beaumont, drove him up against the Belgian frontier, and shut him and Napoleon III up in Sedan, where the whole army surrendered.

8. The Netherlands and Belgium.—Holland and Belgium are good examples of what are called “buffer states,” that is, states which are interposed between the territories of greater Powers, usually with the effect of obviating a serious collision in that particular quarter. Such are Siam, between the French possessions of Anam, Cambodia, Cochin China and others, and British Burma; Afghanistan, which parts our north-west


frontier from Russian Turkestan; Korea, which has played its part in wars between Japan on the one hand and China and Russia on the other; and Rumania, Servia and Montenegro, which keep Austria-Hungary and Russia from too close contact with the Ottoman Empire.

In the fourteenth century, under the Dukes of Burgundy, the seventeen provinces of the Netherlands were a loose aggregation of individual states under German or French influence. Under the Emperor Charles V a certain unity was created, and Antwerp in particular became exceedingly prosperous. The Reformation had made much progress in the north, and the Inquisition was introduced to deal with those who followed the new teaching. In the end revolt was provoked, and Antwerp became the centre of disaffection. The ravages of the piratical "Beggars of the Sea" prevented the Spaniards from ever being really masters of the country, especially after the capture of Brill. A famous incident was the siege of Leyden in 1574, when the Spaniards were driven away by the inundations caused by the defenders. Antwerp, however, fell, and was treated with the savagery which harmed the reputation of Spain more than aught else. The southern provinces had to submit. The map shows that they are easily accessible, while Holland is capable of a very stubborn and effective defence owing to being carved up by countless streams, both natural and artificial.



The Dutch Republic, therefore, held out, and its independence was finally recognized at the Peace of Westphalia. Holland remained inviolate, indeed, until the almost resistless might of the French Revolution swept this land into the net of the new Power for a time.

Belgium, however, suffered greatly from the collisions of neighbouring nations. The ascendancy of France threatened this land, now the Austrian Netherlands, granted as a duchy to the Archduke Albert by Philip II, and the enemies of Louis XIV used it as a battleground. The war of the Spanish succession had two main theatres, one in the region of Vienna, where the Blenheim campaign was fought, and one in Belgium. It will be seen that Tournay is the fortress watching Lille, Mons is opposite to Valenciennes, Charleroi blocks advance down the Sambre from Maubeuge, and Namur stands in a commanding position, guarding the Sambre approach from the west and the valley of the Meuse leading from the south. Liège is the stronghold, also on the Sambre, of the eastern border. It will readily be seen, then, that when Namur fell into the hands of William III in 1695, the allies were in a position to gain good terms from Louis at the Treaty of Ryswick. The Duke of Marlborough, it will be remembered, won most of his successes in this region. The battle of Ramillies, north of Namur, gave him Brussels, Antwerp, Bruges, Gent and Ostend. Oudenarde opened the way to Lille, which was taken in 1708, and the stubborn




contest at Malplaquet gave Mons to the Duke. Thus was France thrust out of Belgium.

The campaign of 1815 was the last of importance in this land. Wellington lay at Brussels, and Blücher was making westwards to join him. Napoleon, as he nearly always did, succeeded in striking before the union was effected. He had his choice of three converging roads, from Mons, Charleroi or Namur, and selected the middle one. Ney was held at Quatre Bras, but Blücher was thrust from the field of Ligny. Making a magnificent effort, the Prussian general succeeded in effecting his promised junction with the English at Waterloo, where the English had doggedly held their ground against a superior force, and Napoleon was ruined.

The settlement of 1814-15 united Belgium and Holland under one monarch; but geography, religion and nationality revolted against the arrangement, and Catholic Belgium soon broke away from Protestant Holland. To-day the countries are distinct, and rightly so.

9. **Frederick the Great.**—We cannot close this chapter without some reference to the geographical aspects of the career of Frederick the Great. In the first year of his reign he seized the large province of Silesia, the property of Austria. Morally, this was an outrageous act; geographically, it had abundant justification, for there is no physical barrier. Silesia is the basin of the upper Oder, and Brandenburg lies across its middle



course. The centres of the wars arising from this seizure were as follows. *Berlin* was threatened by Russia. Gross-Jägersdorf, where the Russians gained their first success, is far away in East Prussia. The line of the Oder, between Küstrin and Frankfurt, saw the bloody and indecisive fight of Zorndorf and the fearful Prussian disaster of Künersdorf. Berlin was occupied and plundered, and the accession of Peter III alone saved Frederick. *Silesia* was another theatre of war. The historic sham siege of Neisse, and the occupations of Glatz, Schweidnitz and Breslau are notable incidents, and fights for Breslau took place at intervals. Leuthen, close by (December 5, 1757), was the scene of a remarkable victory for Frederick, Landshut saw the defeat of Fouquet by the Austrians in 1760, and the battle of Liegnitz in the same year established the Prussian possession of Silesia. *Saxony* bore the brunt of much fighting. The battle of Lobositz, near the confluence of the Eger and the Elbe,¹ checked Browne and put Pirna in Frederick's hands. At Maxen and Hochkirchen conspicuous disasters befel the Prussian arms, and Dresden was occupied more than once by both sides. This noble city was nearly ruined before the last war was two years old. One attempt, a very rash one, was made by the Prussian king to invade Vienna through the gate of *Moravia*; but the siege of Olmütz was raised by Loudon.

Bohemia was invaded in 1757. The bloody battle of Prag was a temporary success for Frederick, but Daun gave him a severe beating at Kolin, away to the east, and Austria was never again seriously threatened in this exposed part of her possessions. The isolated and decisive battle of Rossbach, on the Saale, when the French and Imperialists were routed, has already been incidentally mentioned.

10. **Summary.**—The Rhine, then, has three portions. The Swiss stream is in the main a boundary of land drained by left-bank tributaries, the right being occupied by the Danube. The middle stream is German, and, from the very debatable nature of the terrain, has always been more or less in dispute. The gate of Burgundy (Belfort-Strassbourg), the gate of Metz (the line of the Mosel), and the Belgian border, marked by the fields of Rocroi and Sedan, are the principal passage-ways. The lower course is bordered by the kingdoms of Holland and Belgium, the actual boundaries being entirely artificial.

The centre of German expansion has been Brandenburg,¹ the nucleus of modern Prussia. The absorption of Silesia, Pomerania and Polish Prussia, and the wars of 1756 and 1866 gave Berlin the German leadership. Austria became a definitely Hapsburg power in 1648,

¹ The story of this growth is finely told by Carlyle, *Frederick the Great*, vol. i.



and her dynastic policy is admirably expressed geographically by her occupation of the Middle Danube, after failures on the Swiss, the Bavarian and the German Rhine. It is to the Danube that we turn in the next chapter.

CHAPTER VII

THE DANUBE

1. **Course of the River Danube.**—The Danube has four distinct portions, the Bavarian, the Austrian, the Hungarian and the Romanian. Of these the most important from our point of view is the second. We hope to justify these divisions in the course of the chapter on the ground of Historical Geography, if on no other.

The origin of this great river is to be found in a series of small streams rising in the Breisgau region of the Black Forest, and passing through the Swabian Jura as one river to enter Bavarian territory at Ulm, there receiving the Iller from the south. About sixty kilomètres to the north-east it passes Donauwörth, a town small in size but strategically important, and is there joined by the Lech, the river on which Augsburg stands. The important town of Ingolstadt lies on the left bank farther down. Nürnberg, in Middle Franconia, is situated at no great distance to the north. At Regensburg¹ the Danube is checked in its north-easterly course by the Bavarian Forest, and travels

¹ Or Ratisbon.

longitudinally south-eastwards to the fine gorge of Passau, where the notable river of the Inn discharges its waters. The main stream travels between towering walls of mountain, till, beyond Linz, it enters the plain. Tributaries are numerous, especially on the Alpine or right bank. To the north lies Moravia, through which an important passage-way leads from the Oder, flanked by Olmütz and Brünn. Rounding the end of the Wiener Wald, the Danube reaches the great city of Vienna, which stands in a position soon to be discussed. At Pressburg the Leitha Mountains and the Little Carpathians nearly meet, and the March adds its waters to those of the now mighty river. Further down, another gap occurs, the Bakony Mountains being separated from a confused mass of heights to the north-east, and Buda-Pest is reached. For upwards of five hundred miles now the Danube winds its way over the level Hungarian plain, receiving three very large affluents. The first is the Drave, which rises in Tirol, traverses Carinthia and leaves the Eastern Alps to form the northern limit of Slavonia. On the left bank, about sixty miles farther down, the Theiss¹ unites with the main stream. This tributary drains well-nigh the whole of the Carpathians proper, and its banks are studded with scores of considerable towns, among which we note Tokay and Szegedin. Thirdly, the Save rises in the longitude of Triest, passes Laibach and

¹ Tisza, or Tesla.

Agram, bounds Bosnia and Servia on the north as far as Belgrad, a city with a vital military position and consequently a stormy history. The Danube then continues eastwards, receiving the drainage of Servia by way of the Morava, and enters upon the last stage of its course after a strenuous passage through the well-known Iron Gate, now navigable. Its final reaches form the southern limit of Rumania and Bessarabia, and, for most of the way, the northern border of Bulgaria, and the Black Sea receives the inflow of the combined waters—a truly mighty aggregation of drainage from Alps, Carpathians and Balkans.¹

2. *The approaches to Vienna.*—It will be well to state at the beginning that the history of the Bavarian, the Austrian and the Hungarian Danube largely centres on Vienna, and that of the lower or Rumanian Danube on Constantinople. We will first briefly describe the position of Vienna, and then select the main features of its historical geography, which has a very military character, for the Austrian capital has been a tempting prize, always fairly open to attack in most directions, and it is also centrally situated for aggression.

Vienna stands on the right bank of the Danube, in a position of exceptional beauty, and is remarkable

¹ See the very suggestive illustration on p. 80 of Mr. Herbertson's *Senior Geography* (Clarendon Press).

among the finest of the cities of the world for its fine parks, boulevards and public buildings. It is situated in the corner between mountains on the north and west, plain on the south-east, and the river on the east, and is probably the greatest centre of routes in Europe. Through the Austrian Gate lies the way to South Germany, and through the Moravian Gate to the plains of North Germany. The Hungarian Plain gives access to south-eastern Europe, and the Semmering route leads to Italy. The well-known Orient Express railway journey from Paris lies through Vienna, Buda-Pest, Belgrad and Adrianople. Thus it will be readily seen that the centre of the Austrian power is well situated for expansion when the central authority is strong, but equally vulnerable when the enemy is in the ascendant. We will therefore first examine the nature of the possessions of the House of Hapsburg.

3. "*Ce sont des territoires; ce n'est pas un état.*"— There has never been any approach to homogeneity in the territories of Austria. They comprise the old hereditary Hapsburg possessions of the Alps, viz., Lower and Upper Austria, Salzburg, Styria, Carinthia, Carniola, Tirol, Görz and Triest; most of the lands of the old kingdom of Bohemia, *i. e.* Bohemia, Moravia and part of Silesia; parts of the former kingdom of Poland (Galicia, Bukovina), and the Venetian colonies on the east side of the Adriatic. At different times attempts were made

to increase these dominions, or old possessions were lost. The hereditary Austrian Netherlands were conquered by the French Republic in its early days, and were made independent in 1815. Charles VI, indeed, after the Peace of Utrecht, was constantly scheming to have them exchanged for a less remote country, Bavaria; but Bavaria's affairs were ordered otherwise, and that kingdom is now an integral part of the German Empire. Expansion into Switzerland was checked very early, as we saw in the last chapter. In Italy Austria long held patches of territory; but Napoleon I wrenched them all away for a time, and Napoleon III helped the Italians in the early days of their successful struggle for national independence. Silesia was lost in 1740, as we have already shown; but some sort of compensation was made when Kaunitz persuaded Maria Theresa to take her share in the inglorious spoil of the first Partition of Poland, and Galicia, quite anomalous as an Austrian possession both geographically and ethnographically, was annexed. Efforts, too, were made from time to time to obtain land at the expense of Turkey, but fortune never smiled upon them.

The power of the Hapsburgs has always been more pretentious than real, and no wonder, for a more remarkable agglomeration of peoples and tongues seldom owned the sway of a single power. Austria proper is German, but its history has always been dynastic. When the desire for a union of the Teutonic states

became real, the leadership fell, not to the semi-Mediterranean monarchy, but to the pure-blooded, centralized might of Brandenburg, fostered by the organizing genius of Frederick William I, rescued from the jaws of destruction by the doggedness of his son (as well as by the idiotic supineness of Daun's generalship), and brought to the height of its power by the famous and notorious methods of Bismarck. The Bohemians are not Germans, but Czechs. The Hungarians or Magyars are a semi-Asiatic race with a very strong individuality, with a language, a national history, a poetic and musical genius of its own, a restless, horse-loving people of the steppe, and impossible of real fusion with any outsiders. The West-Slav people of Galicia have affinity with the Czechs of Bohemia. Beyond the Drave are South-Slavs, such as Slovenians, Croats, Serbs and Moslaks, and Italians are found round Triest. Romanians, too, are found in the east. There is therefore a very marked absence of national sentiment, for there is no real nation represented by the central power. In the same way there is a lack of cohesion in territorial arrangements. In short, as a French minister aptly said, "*Ce sont des territoires ; ce n'est pas un état.*"

4. The Bavarian or Upper Danube.—We now select an instance or two to illustrate the approaches to Vienna from the west. In 1704 the capital was threatened by the French, and Marlborough, who was in Belgium, determined to make a great effort to save it. Vendôme

was facing Prince Eugene upon the Adige. The Elector of Bavaria had joined the French and seized Ulm. Villars crossed the Rhine at Strassbourg, took Kehl, forced his way through the Black Forest and joined the Elector, while Tallard supported him. The Hungarians were in revolt, and were preparing to attack from the east. Marlborough determined to move from the Netherlands. He feigned an attempt to turn the border fortresses by a march up the Mosel, and summoned the Brandenburg contingent to Mainz, moving his own head-quarters to Coblenz without incurring suspicion, and left the Dutch at Maestricht to guard his right. He then made for Mainz and Heilbronn and descended upon the Danube by forced marches. Near Ulm Prince Eugene joined him, and Louis of Baden. He travelled down the Danube and forced the Bavarian lines at Donauwörth, driving the Elector back to Augsburg and getting between the French and Vienna. The united armies of Marsin and Tallard then prepared to crush him, but he attacked them at Blenheim (Blindheim) and won one of the greatest battles in the world's history.

In 1800 Moreau was sent to strike at the heart of Austria through Vienna. After stubborn fighting between Lake Constance and Ulm, at Engen, Möskirch and Biberach, Augsburg was taken as the French head-quarters. Augereau was sent with reinforcements and orders to push on, and Munich was attacked. On December 3 the matter was decided at Hohenlinden.


Moreau pushed on past the Inn, the Salzach, the Traun and the Enns, Macdonald penetrated Tirol and threatened Vienna, and, with two armies almost upon him, the Emperor Francis concluded the Treaty of Lunéville. In 1805 General Mack was selected to defend this same region against Napoleon himself, in his prime. He was chosen to lead because he had not been beaten: but this last was simply because he had not fought. He established himself at Ulm, fancying that Napoleon would advance, like Moreau, through the Black Forest; but the Grand Army came through Würtemberg and Franconia, violating the Prussian neutrality by traversing Anspach. When Mack was told of this he would not believe it, and he was consequently cornered with 33,000 men. Next, Napoleon marched past a combined Russian and Austrian force in Moravia, occupied Vienna, crossed the Danube, and subsequently forced the two Emperors to the north, winning a great victory at Austerlitz.

In 1809 similar scenes were enacted. The Archduke Charles advanced into Bavaria, in order to defeat in detail Davoust at Regensburg and Masséna at Augsburg. But Napoleon, preferring a showy success to the arduous duty of driving a dogged English army out of Spain, suddenly arrived in person. He defeated the Austrian left at Abensberg, near Ingolstadt, and the right at Eckmühl, to the east. The former army he pursued to Vienna, which surrendered. Then,

forcing his way across the Danube near the island of Lobau, he stormed Aspern and Essling and won the battle of Wagram close by. After this Austrian resistance somewhat unnecessarily collapsed.

The western approaches to Vienna, then, are mainly through Bavaria, directed from the Middle Rhine alike in peace or war, and the events which have moved along this course all go to prove the continuity of principle which the nature of a given terrain generally imposes upon those who frame campaigns.

5. **The Austrian Danube.**—We next consider the Austrian strip of the Danube by itself, as covered by Bohemia and Moravia, and note a great difference in vulnerability. When trouble has threatened from the north, Austria has always been able to keep the foe much farther afield, for the Empire has a very strongly situated advanced territory in Bohemia, while Moravia, though affording a somewhat easier approach through Silesia, makes it a very long and dangerous one, and indirect to boot. Olmütz, indeed, saw operations of a serious nature in 1642, in 1741 and in 1758, while in 1241 the Bohemians here foiled the Mongol invasion by way of the Moravian Gate. Bohemia is entered either from the north, along the line of the Elbe, or from the east, past the Sudetes, or from Vienna. As far as warfare is concerned, the chief interest is that of the movements of Frederick the Great and Von Moltke. We touch upon both very briefly. Frederick was



never strong enough to make a serious attempt upon Vienna, though he rashly attempted to take Olmütz in 1758. His operations were mainly through Saxony, which he forcibly occupied at the outset in 1756. The main points of collision were Dresden, taken and retaken more than once, Pirna, Reichenberg, Lobositz, and Prag, where a fearful battle resulted only in the temporary occupation of the Bohemian capital by the Prussians. Six weeks afterwards the Austrians under Daun inflicted a terrible beating upon the invaders. Chotusitz (1742) is close by. Prag, too, was the scene of the Imperial victory of the White Mountain, which set in motion the long strife of the Thirty Years' War.

In 1866 Benedek proposed to use Olmütz as his base, and to advance into Saxony, or by way of Glatz into Silesia, against the Crown Prince. The Prussians, however, united at Reichenberg, forced the line of the Elbe by engagements at Podol and Münchengrätz, and by taking the small town of Gitchin, compelled the Austrians to retire to Königgrätz (near Sadowa), where the decisive battle took place. An advance on Vienna was not made, for political reasons, although the Austrians were cut off from the capital.

6. **The Hungarian Danube.**—The history of the Hungarian Danube is mainly that of the occupation of the great plain by the Turks and their expulsion from it. At first the Hungarians were aggressive, but as a rule unsuccessfully. In 1396 Sigismund was decisively

defeated at Nicopolis, on the Lower Danube, while General Hunyadi, nearly fifty years later, carried hostilities into the Balkan regions. By 1456, however, the Moslems were strong enough to initiate a forward movement, and laid siege to the ever-important city of Belgrad, without result. Szabatch, on the Save, not far off, was captured by the Christians in 1475, while their arms were successful also in Transylvania.


In 1521, however, the tide turned. The Sultan's envoy was insulted, and Solyman replied by capturing Belgrad. The greatest disaster in the history of the Magyar people occurred five years later. At Mohács an overwhelming army of Turks completely wiped out the opposing army, and initiated by their victory a century of occupation. To this day the Magyars have a proverb, "No matter, more was lost at Mohács field." The Turks entered Buda and laid waste the country, and the invaders were masters of Hungary.

In 1529 Vienna itself was besieged. In the end the enemy were beaten off and driven out of Austria by Charles V, and during the next fifty years things went steadily against them. They penetrated as far as Debreczin by the end of the century, however, defeating Maximilian at Keresztes. Matters were quiet till 1663, when Neuhausel, near Pressburg, was seized by the Moslems; but in the next campaign they were overthrown at St. Gotthard, on the Raab, and a long truce followed. The position of these places, however, shows

that the invaders were distinctly in the ascendant. The Turks diverted themselves in the interim by a war in Poland. When the war began again Vienna was once more invested, and many romantic stories are told about the struggle. John Sobieski and Charles of Lorraine drove off the besiegers after a hard tussle, and defeat after defeat was inflicted upon the Turks. Appropriately enough, a decisive victory was gained over them at Mohács in 1687, and Erlau, Belgrad, Stuhlweissenburg and other towns were recovered. Belgrad changed hands yet again in three years' time, but further progress was stopped by the death of Kuiprili-Zada Mustapha at Slankamen, near the confluence of Theiss and Danube. In 1699 the Peace of Carlowitz decided one of the most obstinate and protracted struggles of all time, and Hungary was practically rid of the Moslems.

7. **The Lower Danube.**—After leaving the Iron Gate the Danube assumes a quite different historical character. The Carpathians and Transylvanian Alps effectually cut off its basin from Hungary, while the Balkan ridge encloses it to the south. Places where the river can conveniently be crossed aim at passes in the Balkans, such as the Slivno or Selina, the Shipka, the Trojan and the Etropol, and both the river itself and the plains to the south abound in points of interest.

Beginning at the north-western corner of Bulgaria




we notice Kalafat, where the Turks defeated the Russians in January, 1854; Nicopolis, where Bajazet defeated a Christian Crusade in 1396 and the Russians crossed to invest Plevna in 1877; Rasgrad, Ruschuk, Oltenitza and Silistria, all distinguished in 1877-8 at least, and Varna on the Black Sea, where the Turks gained a victory in 1444 and lost to their northern foes in 1828. Silistria, indeed, saw engagements between Russian and Turk in 1773, in 1810, in 1828-9, in the Crimean War and in that of 1878. It stands in a very strong position, protected by marsh and river, and gives access to the plain of Deli-Orman and the eastern end of the range behind, and so through to Constantinople. The rest of the story belongs to the Historical Geography of the Balkan Peninsula.

8. **Summary.**—The history of the Danube as far down as the Iron Gate centres on Vienna. From the west the way lies along the main stream or across the Lech, the Isar, the Inn, the Traun and the Enna. From the north the Elbe-Moldau through Prag, and from Silesia the Moravian Gate gives access to the great city. Triest and Fiume join routes at Laibach, and the Semmering pass leads to the Danube. Hungarian roads converge upon the Hungarian Gate at Buda-Pest and the Austrian at Pressburg, and invaders of Hungary enter by the Rothenthurm Pass, south of Hermannstadt, which was the route of the Russian General Lúders, who helped to suppress the





Magyar rising in 1849 ; by the Tömöser Pass south of Kronstadt ; by Vereczke, the gate of the Magyars ; and by the valley of the Bogrod and that of the Vistula. The Lower Danube has always been the great line of resistance between Russians and Turks. It is easily possible to add to the examples given above. Nearly the whole history of the Danube is bound up with Austria, the diversified nature of whose possessions has led to a lack of homogeneity and much disaster, and even to-day there is much discontent and jealousy between the German and the Magyar peoples of the Empire, which may unfortunately break out at the death of the present monarch.



CHAPTER VIII

THE ALPINE BARRIER AND ITALY

1. **Nature of the Alpine Barrier.**—The Alps are by no means so formidable a barrier as would appear from a casual glance at the map. They are crossed in a great number of places by quite practicable carriage-roads, and at no time in history, save in the Second Punic War, can it be said that they have seriously hindered the progress even of armies.¹ The successful resistance to Austria of the Swiss we have touched upon previously.² Bonaparte's crossing before Marengo was unopposed, and the difficulties of it have been enormously exaggerated. "All was recorded in bulletins . . . addressed to the shilling-gallery; and there were fellows on the stage . . . of enormous whiskerage, unlimited command of gunpowder; not without sufficient ferocity; . . . compared with whom, to the shilling-gallery, and the frightened, excited theatre at large, it seemed as if there had been no generals nor sovereigns before; as if Friedrich, Gustavus, Cromwell, William Conqueror or Alexander the Great were not worth speaking of henceforth."³

¹ Except in Suvórov's case in 1799.

² P. 72.

³ Carlyle, *Frederick the Great*, i. 5.

The following routes should be carefully traced out, as a proper understanding of the topography of the Alps is absolutely necessary alike to the geographer and the historian. Beginning at the Gulf of Genoa and working right round the range till it sinks into the Magyar plains, we first observe the Col di Tenda leading to the sea at Ventimiglia, north-east of Nice. The Col dell' Altare leads inland from Savona. Passing westwards, it will be seen that the Rhone system connects with Turin by a number of river valleys, the heads of which lead to the heads of Italian streams by well-known passes. The Durance connects with the Dora Riparia by means of the Genèvre pass, and the Dora Riparia with the Arc by Fréjus or Mont Cenis, the former being tunnelled.¹ The Arc is a tributary of the Isère, which joins the Rhone near Valence. More to the north the Dora Baltea communicates with the Isère by the Little St. Bernard, while a small tributary of the Dora Baltea is linked northwards to a small tributary of the Rhone itself by the Great St. Bernard. This completes the Turin system, *i. e.* the main passes of the western arc of the range.

The central routes are more important than the western, to-day at least, for reasons which are sufficiently obvious—they lead direct from all important points between Paris, the Rhine and Berlin, to Milan, in the heart of the plain of Lombardy. The Simplon, with its

¹ The so-called Mont Cenis tunnel.

twelve-mile tunnel, between Brieg and Iselle, joins the main stream of the Upper Rhone to the Toce, past Domo d'Ossola to Lake Maggiore, and so to the plain. The St. Gotthard, also tunnelled (Göschenen to Airolo), leads from the Reuss, an important tributary of the Rhine, to the Ticino, past Bellinzona. The Lukmanier and the Bernardino connect the Vorder Rhine and the Hinter Rhine respectively with the Ticino; and the Splügen route from the Hinter Rhine makes for Lake Como.

Of no less interest historically are the ways from Vienna and the Danube to the Po. Lake Como and the Adda direct the way across the Julier pass to the long Inn valley, which joins the Danube at Passau. The well-known Brenner route passes up the Adige (from Verona) and the Eisach to Innsbrück, and so to the Danube as before. The Inn also connects with the Rhine by the Arlberg, a comparatively low col. Lastly, the Tagliamento, a stream flowing into the Gulf of Venice, communicates with the Drave by the Tarvis pass.¹

The Alps are a most decided *climatic* barrier. Italy is a thoroughly typical Mediterranean country, while France, Switzerland and Germany derive their atmospheric phenomena from the western ocean or the eastern plains, and only in a negative way from the south. The Alps and the Illyrian chains bar southern influences from Central Europe.

¹ Herbertson, *Senior Geography*, p. 64.

2. **Italy.**—The Italian peninsula, forming the eastern edge of the western basin of the Mediterranean, is in the main a branch of the great Eurasian earth-fold which projects across the belt of subsidence, being continued in Sicily and then again in the Atlas ranges. The Plain of Lombardy is an elevated portion of a deep Adriatic Gulf between the Alps and Apennines, or an area of subsidence between those ranges, with sheets of sediment from rivers and glaciers superimposed. The coastline is rich in bays and good harbours, especially on the west, a fact which has had a distinct bearing upon history, for Italians were for a long time in the forefront of navigation and exploration, and their *portolani* or charts were the first reliable maps in regular use. The country is well placed for communication with the Eastern Mediterranean and the Suez Canal, on account of its fine eastward harbours of Venice, Brindisi, Taranto, Messina and Syracuse. The north of Africa is easily reached from the Sicilian ports.

As far as history is concerned, the main interest centres in Rome on the one hand and the Plain of Lombardy on the other.

3. **Rome.**—The history of Rome stands by itself: it is absolutely unique. It would be futile to attempt to ascribe the wonderful expansion from the town, founded by foreign refugees, into the empire, which covered most of the known world. Before the beginnings of Rome there dwelt in the north a population akin to

Celts; the mountain masses which form the sea-board between the Rhone and the Arno were occupied by Ligurians. From the Arno to the Tiber spread a people whose language and origin seem likely to remain for ever a mystery, the Etruscans, the strongest Power in the peninsula; and the rest was inhabited by Latins, Umbrians and Sabellians, "Italian" tribes, the first-named of which dwelt on the sea-board south of the Tiber.

It was among these that the infant city arose; but early events are legendary. Lars Porsenna of Clusium seems to have conquered and occupied Rome, and to have been somehow withdrawn, and desperate struggles were waged against a really awe-inspiring circle of foes, from which Rome emerged victorious in spite of internal dissensions. The capture of Veii, a few miles to the north, is explained by the preoccupation of the rest of the Etruscans with the Gauls on their northern border. The Gauls must have wrought terrible havoc upon the rivals of the little republic, and Rome itself seems to have been saved by the impregnability of the Capitol and by a timely money payment.¹

From this point onwards the rising state never looked back. We are not concerned to trace the expansion of the territories of Rome; but the cause of it all is another matter. To what can we ascribe the fact that this people, a hybrid people, held their own against

¹ B.C. 390.

overwhelming odds, emerged triumphant from the struggle for existence, and then embarked upon a career of practically unbroken success, each conquest being connected with the capital by the building of those wonderful roads which still remain to mark the genius of the Romans? Geography supplies no clue beyond the natural strength of the central fortress. The two root causes are to be found, we think, in the *esprit de corps* arising from the citizenship theories of the Greek states, and borrowed, like most of her legends, by Rome; and in the genius for organization possessed, for some reason or other, in a wonderful degree by this community. A steadier, more level-headed body of men never existed. In the early days of Rome everything depended upon mere brute force. The best army was the greatest power in the world, and the essential thing for military success is, as we have said, organization. It may be urged as an objection that our own national history belies this; but we do not think that it does. Organization built up the navy without which none of our great successes would have been possible; and what military force has ever been so wonderfully managed, from base to firing line, as Wellington's Peninsular army?

The fact is, that the history of Rome is a severe lesson to those who would place too much reliance upon the physical as explaining the material. While this volume is specially designed to show how geography has affected

history, it is also calculated, we hope, to warn the student against allowing the principle to carry him too far. The Romans were neither a hill people, nor a maritime people, nor a northern people: yet they conquered the world. Physical features were nothing to them. They filled valleys and notched mountains. Beaten at sea by Carthage, they found a derelict vessel of the enemy's, created a fleet like it, invented a machine for locking rival vessels together, won land-battles at sea, and paralyzed the maritime power of their rivals. After Cannæ they did not give themselves up to despair, but thanked Varro because "the consul had not despaired of the republic." Let those, then, who hold up the maritime English, or the highland Scots and Welsh, as the greatest pioneers of progress and independence, study the history of Rome, and modify their conclusions.

4. **Hannibal.**—One phase of Roman history is instructive in a different way, viz., the Second Punic War. We have just seen that the maritime power of Carthage was broken, presumably, once for all. Hannibal was unable to reckon on a safe passage by sea. He accordingly, miscalculating the difficulties of the undertaking, started from New Carthage,¹ crossed the Pyrenees at their eastern end, and, without opposition from the Gallic tribes, reached the Rhone in safety, and forced its passage, disputed by the Gauls.

¹ Cartagena.

He then crossed the Alps, no one knows where, perhaps by the Little St. Bernard pass, chastised the hostile barbarians, took their city of Turin, and finally faced, with 20,000 foot and 6000 horse, the Power which had lately put into the field against the Gauls an army of 170,000 men. After a battle on the Ticino the northern banks of the Po fell into his hands, and a further success on the Trebbia near Piacenza gave him the choice of a passage south. He traversed Etruria, wasting it as he went, and won a tremendous success at Lake Trasimene, near Perugia. Two years later the Romans suffered an almost overwhelming reverse at Cannæ, on the Ofanto (Aufidus) in Apulia; but after that the war languished till the Battle of the Metaurus¹ settled it in favour of the Romans.

5. *Invasions of Italy, 1796-7.*—Italy, as distinguished from Rome, has never been an expanding Power, save in a very limited sense. The reason is that the whole peninsula has never, until the middle of the nineteenth century, been the home of a single rule. It has rather been the bone over which the larger governments have wrangled. Consequently the tide has always flowed inwards, Spain, France and Austria being generally the interested parties. The most convenient fighting-ground has proved to be the Plain of Lombardy, and round the various points *d'appui* are clustered many great battle-fields.

¹ A few miles north of Ancona.

In 1796 Bonaparte turned the Maritime Alps and forced his way inland by beating back the Sardinians at Montenotte, near Savona. He then made rapidly westwards, gaining successes almost daily at Millesimo, Dego, Ceva and Mondovi, thus threatening Turin. The Armistice of Cherasco enabled him to secure his rear and attack the Austrians. Making for Milan, he crossed the Po and beat the enemy at Lodi, the cathedral city then falling into his hands. This enabled him to proceed further east and attack the next stronghold, Mantua. This siege he was compelled to break up in order to face Würmser, who was coming down Lake Garda from Tirol. Augereau won the battle of Castiglione for him, and he established his head-quarters at Verona. Here he was threatened by Alvinzi, who faced him at Caldiero, lower down the Adige, and repulsed an attack; but the tables were turned in a few days at Arcola, to the south. Alvinzi retreated into Tirol, and, advancing again, was utterly defeated at Rivoli. By April 1797 the French had pushed their way as far as Leoben, and preliminaries of peace were signed.

6. Campaigns of 1799 and 1800.—When war broke out again General Schérer was forced from Verona by the Austrian General Kray, who beat him at Magnano in Piacenza. The Russian Suvórov then reinforced Kray and forced the Adda at Cassano, entering Milan. He was in Turin within the month, and after leaving

besieging armies before Mantua and Alessandria, shut up the remnants of Moreau's army in Genoa, soon after winning a success against Macdonald on the Trebbia. Joubert took command at Genoa, and burst out upon the Russians, to be vanquished and slain at Novi. Suvórov determined to cross the Alps, but a few battalions kept him at bay in the St. Gotthard region, and when he eventually reached Grisons his army was practically destroyed by starvation and stress of weather. He had been ill supported by Austria, who, indeed, showed throughout these stormy times an ineptitude and incompetence which made French victories appear far more meritorious than they really were. Bonaparte reappeared in 1800, fresh from his failures in Egypt and Syria, and crossed the Great St. Bernard in order to come upon the rear of the Austrians, who had just taken Genoa, and bar their road to Piacenza. Lannes drove in the enemy's advanced guard at Montebello, but Melas forced his way out of Alessandria, only to allow victory to slip from his grasp at Marengo. He then signed away Genoa, Piedmont and the Milanese to the French, withdrawing east of the Mincio. The Treaty of Lunéville followed.

7. **Napoleon III.**—In 1859 affairs moved in very much the same channels. An incompetent Austrian commander, Guilay, delayed to crush Piedmont till the French army was ready for him, and wasted three weeks in meaningless meanderings, while the Alpine

passes and Genoa poured French succours into the province. He finally made up his mind to cross the Ticino and the Po and attack Alessandria, but was beaten upon familiar ground at Montebello. The allies made for Milan, winning at Palestro, south of Novara, and then at Magenta, just outside Milan, which city they entered in triumph. The enemy retired to the Mincio, and the decisive battle was fought at Solferino, near the old field of Castiglione. We need not follow the rest of the proceedings here.

8. **Essential points.**—The topography of the Plain of Lombardy is determined by the River Po and its tributaries, on most of which stand fortresses to guard the approaches from Alps and Apennines. Turin is on the Po itself, and is approached from Fréjus (from the Rhone valley; no great highway) and from the Ligurian coast-line. Consequently the passes northwards from Savona were the scene of much strife in 1796. It was Turin that Hannibal attacked as he debouched on to the plain. To the east lies Alessandria, marked out by such fields as that of Novi and Marengo. The Ticino, coming from the St. Gotthard past Bellinzona and Lake Maggiore, has often been contested. At Novara engagements were fought in the French and Spanish wars of 1495, 1500 and 1513; the Austrians beat down the Piedmontese there in 1821, and again in 1849. Milan is one of the most vital points in the plain. Its possession is a menace to Mantua, and Magenta and

Lodi close by testify to its importance. The line of the Adda, too, enhances its interest. Austria has had more to say in Italy than any other foreign power; and this is largely because of the ease with which access is gained to Venetia and Lombardy down the Adige. Lake Garda leads to the Mincio and the great fortress of Mantua, and the Adige to Verona. Hence the terrific crop of battles just here, Rivoli, Arcola, Castiglione, Solferino, Custoza, Villafranca, and many others. Eastwards matters thin out considerably, as interest in Padua and Venice has been local rather than international, or, when Venice did become an object of attack, the possession of Verona and Mantua settled the question.

It is essential for the student to grasp these salient features. They dominate the topography of the plain, and have far more than a mere military bearing. In this case, as in that of so many others, a short study of dynamical history is rewarded by an enhanced insight into geography, both pure and economic, the "where," the "why there," the "what has been done there," and the "what is done there." Milan, for instance, is a great railway centre, reached from the St. Gotthard and Simplon tunnels, and leading to Piacenza (another important fortress), Modena, Rimini, Ancona, and so to Brindisi for the Suez Canal.

9. Political control of Italy.—Metternich once said, very justly, that "Italy" was merely a "geographical

expression." In his day, indeed, it was so. It would be out of place to discuss here the numerous changes in its political control; but we will briefly indicate some essential points.

At the beginning of the fourteenth century this land was divided into three parts. In the south was the kingdom of Naples, in the north the group of city states, and between them, stretching obliquely across the peninsula, the Papal states of the Church. Venice was the most celebrated, having a great fleet and a flourishing trade with the Levant. It always supported the Eastern Empire, which acted as a sort of buffer state between the Turks and itself. When Constantinople fell Venice began to spread her influence over the mainland of Italy, and kept the Turks out. Similar, but less highly favoured states were Milan, Florence and Genoa. In 1499 the French invaded Italy and took Milan, while Spain and Austria subsequently fought out many of their squabbles on the Plain of Lombardy. French and Spanish influence was temporarily destroyed by the Peace of Utrecht. Naples, Sardinia, the Milanese, Mantua and the Tuscan Presidencies were given to Austria. The House of Savoy was the core of what feeling of nationality did exist; the rest of the peninsula was hopelessly divided. The fate of the country in Napoleonic times we have already seen. It was not until the diplomacy of Cavour, the energy of Victor Emmanuel and the military genius of Garibaldi

completed the half-hearted work of Napoleon III in driving the Austrians out of Italy, that any reorganization was effected. After the war of 1866 Venetia was ceded by Austria, and when Napoleon III was obliged to withdraw his troops from Rome in 1870, the Italian army marched in, and the unification of Italy was accomplished.

CHAPTER IX

THE IBERIAN PENINSULA

1. **Configuration.**—Although the Iberian Peninsula has an extensive Atlantic and Biscayan sea-board, it is safe to classify it as a Mediterranean country. Prevailing winds on the western side blow parallel to the coast, or obliquely, and the mountains of Galicia and Asturias monopolize the climatic influences of those which are most direct. Temperature, too, as well as characteristic vegetation, has everything in common with the countries bordering the Southern sea. Geographically, the peninsula is a physical unity, and, according to all natural laws, should be the home of one nation. As a matter of fact, it is the home of two, racially akin it is true, but politically quite distinct. There is no physical justification for the existence of Portugal as a separate state, though the geographical position of Portugal has proved to be a fact of most momentous importance. The smaller country consists virtually of the lower and more navigable parts of the basins of the Douro and Tagus, marked by the existence of the great ports of Oporto and Lisbon. Spain is the rest of the peninsula.

The core of this land is the plateau known as the Meseta. This is of very high elevation, and is of the ridge and furrow order. Right across the north runs the continuous mountain chain of the Cantabrians and Pyrenees. The only real break in the range is the Col de la Perche, leading from the Segre, a tributary of the Ebro, to Perpignan, the stronghold of Roussillon, this in its turn communicating with Narbonne, Carcassonne and Toulouse. This route is generally known as the Gate of Carcassonne. The western end of the Pyrenees is notched by but few passes, all of which join Bayonne to Pampeluna, either by way of Tolosa, San Sebastian and the coast, or through the Pass of Roncesvalles.

To the south of these sierras lie the comparatively level tracts of Old Castile and Aragon, separated by a knot of mountains. The former merges insensibly into the Portuguese province of Traz os Montes, and contains the ancient cities of Valladolid and Salamanca; the latter, drained by the Ebro, has Zaragoza in its centre and Lerida in the east. Separating Douro and Tagus we notice the Sierra da Guadarrama, continued by the Gródos, Gata and (Portuguese) Estrella ranges, to the south of which flows the stream the basin of which includes both capitals. Madrid stands in a central but exposed and unpleasant position, with Toledo, the old capital, on the Tagus itself; Lisbon has an almost unrivalled position on an arm of the sea. The eastern coast is occupied by Murcia, Valencia and Catalonia,

and Barcelona is the great port of the last-named. South of the Tagus basin run the mountains of Toledo, continued in the Sierra da Guadalupe, and the Guadiana flows in the valleys beneath, with Badajoz as the Spanish border fortress, faced by Elvas. Across the Sierra Morena lies Andalusia, the basin of the Guadalquivir. Cordoba, Seville, Huelva, Xeres and Cadiz belong to this most important district, and finally the Granada coast is flanked by the lofty Sierra Nevada and its offshoots. Malaga and Gibraltar are on the coast.

2. The greatness and the retrogression of Spain.—

There was a time when Spain was the greatest Power in the world. A magnificent army, an enterprising and successful navy, had won enormous territories and untold wealth. Yet both the power and the prestige of Spain proved to be a mere bladder, pricked and quickly exhausted by the stubbornness of Holland and the dauntless courage of our own sea rovers. What were the causes of it all? and how far does geography enter into the matter?

The secret of the great successes which brought the Southerners to a high pinnacle of fame is to be found in the splendid courage which is the heritage of the Spaniard and born of his great pride, and in the men who led. No scruples deterred them, no pity held them back, and behind all was that most powerful of incentives—gold—which really does seem to have proved a

more potent hunger with the followers of Cortes and Pizarro than with any other body of men of any distinction. Surely no other official or semi-official ventures have been soiled by so much that was villainous and sordid. There is no doubt, either, that the impossible policy of the Inquisition killed the power which used it. But for the rack, the scaffold and the stake, there would have been no motive strong enough to protract the desperate and successful struggle of the United Netherlanders. The Duke of Alva, who is said to have boasted that 18,000 patriots suffered death through him, made it impossible for Spain to hold Holland, and nothing but religious fanaticism, condemned by the best of Catholics, deprived the parent power of the allegiance which might have been hers to-day. But "never was retribution so quick in coming. The transition from Philip II to Philip III is the transition from a first-rate to a third-rate Power, and that without the shock of a great defeat. Enervated by a proud laziness, drained by a world-wide ambition, ruined by a false economy, depleted by a fatal fanaticism, Spain was already" (1598) "falling fast into the slough from which she is only just beginning now to emerge." But puppets for kings and favourites instead of statesmen, worked the havoc of which we so well know the results.

Does geography enter into this question? We think not. We are told that the Spaniard is lazy and

revengeful. A climate which demands the midday siesta certainly does not make for energy, and it is true that many of the admirable resources of the land, both vegetable and mineral, are exploited by foreign capital. Nor is the nature of the Spaniard like ours. His blood is warmer and quicker, and this we may legitimately call a Southern characteristic, as well as the banal love of bull-fighting, morally a most unhealthy sport. But let only a great leader arise and reorganize the country, with its immense latent power in men and matter, and a complete revival might take place. In short, neither geography nor religion, nor any one other cause can rightly be invoked to account for the decline of Spain; but without doubt the most potent reason has been the strange lack of great men—a reason which is in point of fact historical. The Spaniard has always been a patriot, and he has always been capable of great things; sometimes he has done them, as at Baylen and Zaragoza.

3. Political control of the Peninsula.—The whole Peninsula, as is well known, was a Roman province under the single name of Hispania. When the Empire decayed, the Vandals, Suevi and Alani poured in from the north; but their supremacy was short-lived, for in 414 the Visigoths drove the Vandals into Africa, and crushed the Suevi at Astorga. The Gothic domination lasted about three hundred years, when the Moors came across from Africa and overthrew the Gothic monarchy

at the battle of the Guadalete, not far north of Gibraltar. In 795 the Franks seized land to the South of the Pyrenees and held it for many years; but the core of Spanish history for several centuries is the long struggle with the Moors. Their power was based upon the southern kingdom of Granada; the Christians gradually pushed their way down from the Asturias, defeating the Moslems on the now classic battlefield of Talavera in 950, and making Toledo their capital. Among the many provinces into which the Peninsula was divided, Portugal rose into prominence in 1139, when it became independent and a kingdom under Alfonso Henriques. Aragon and Catalonia were united not long after. By 1248 the Moors were pushed back into Granada, and Castile, the leading Power, wrested Gibraltar from the enemy for a time.

The marriage of Ferdinand of Castile with Isabella of Aragon, in 1469, marked an epoch in Spanish history, and resulted in such an increase in power that Granada was taken in the south, and Spanish Navarre in the north, and the Moors were driven out. Portugal was annexed by Philip II, but the sudden decline which followed his death had for one symptom the successful revolt of that country, and its re-erection into an independent kingdom under the House of Braganza. Since then the political control of the Peninsula has remained virtually unaltered, while the rise of France deprived Spain of the trans-Pyrenean possessions, and

made her, save for Portugal, a geographical as well as a political unity.

4. **The war of the Spanish Succession.**—Turning to the purely military side of history, we now discuss briefly the short and erratic career of the Earl of Peterborough in Spain, following with a *résumé* of the Peninsular War. Both sets of operations bring out strongly the ruggedness of the country, and the consequent extreme difficulty in making a thorough sweep of it. In the early years of the war of the Spanish Succession, England gained, by a judicious alliance, a foothold in Portugal, but did not use the magnificent base afforded by Lisbon, to any good purpose. Peterborough, however, employed the fleet in a successful attempt upon Barcelona, and made himself master of Aragon. In the following year Galway determined to support that success by marching upon Madrid, along the Tagus. The city was occupied without difficulty; but this was not a substantial success, and the troops were drawn off to join the rest in Aragon. In the next year he determined to repeat the attempt. He sailed down to Valencia and began his march. At Almanza he was met by the French general Berwick and utterly beaten. Valencia and Aragon were lost, and the power of the allies was limited to the turbulent province of Catalonia.

In 1709, however, French troops were withdrawn from Spain to guard their own frontiers. The allies accordingly



advanced against the new Bourbon king, Philip V, along the old lines, drove him out of Aragon, and nearly out of Castile, to Valladolid, and occupied Madrid. As a result the Spaniards rallied against the foreigners, and the capital was evacuated. The allies retreated upon Aragon in two divisions. Vendôme, who had been sent to take charge of the patriot army, forced his way between them, and demolished them both, the one at Brihuega and the other at Villa Viciosa.¹ So Barcelona alone remained in the hands of the allies, and Spain had emphatically declared that no foreign army can gain a real hold upon a country that presents serious physical difficulties if the inhabitants are determinedly against them, army or no army. This was the bitter lesson we learned in the South African war, and Napoleon was taught it between 1808 and 1814. Spain is an ideal country for guerilla warfare, and if once the Spanish temper is aroused, woe betide the units, nay sometimes the masses, of an enemy's army.

5. The Peninsular War: First Phase.—In 1808 the Portuguese appealed to England for help against the French, and Wellesley was sent. Landing at the mouth of the Mondego, and on his way towards Lisbon, he overcame a French division at Rorica. He was then attacked at Vimiera, and severely defeated Junot, who agreed to evacuate Portugal.² Thus was a base secured

¹ About 50 kilom. N.E. of Madrid.

² The Convention of Cintra.

to England, and into Lisbon poured British supplies, much of our prohibited trade, too, finding its way to the Continent along similar channels. Napoleon had by this time found a pretext for invading Spain, and he occupied Madrid. Up to this time he had been occupied in overthrowing states and breaking up armies. Now, for the first time, he met a nation in arms, and the nation refused to be ruled by Joseph Bonaparte. True, the French under Bessières, coming from Bayonne defeated the best Spanish army near Valladolid at Medina del Rio Seco; but a flying column on its way to Cadiz was taken at Baylen on the upper Guadalquivir, 18,000 men being thus lost to Napoleon. From that point all Spain and Portugal blazed into resistance. Garrisons had to be maintained everywhere, and these harassing duties wore out the French army, rendering it very difficult indeed for columns to co-operate.

Meanwhile Sir John Moore had replaced Wellesley, and determined to make a brave attempt to draw the enemy, with Napoleon at their head, off Madrid. Sending his fleet to Corunna, he slowly gave back as the French pushed him north-westwards, and at length, after untold (and largely unforeseen) hardships, faced round on reaching the coast. Moore was killed, but the army was able to embark when the belated fleet appeared.

6. Peninsular War: Second Phase.—When Wellesley reappeared he proceeded to make his base impregnable.

He was now strongly posted on the flank of the enemy, the strike of the mountain ranges giving him access to their country along the Guadiana, Tagus and Douro. Never have physical features on a large scale had such an effect upon a very important piece of history as during these campaigns. A small but thoroughly efficient English army, which gradually infused confidence into the Spanish, aided by the local knowledge of the natives, and by superb scouting, was able to hold its own until Napoleon's reckless schemes elsewhere denuded Spain of troops and gave the allies the chance of aggressive warfare.

So it was that Wellesley began by forcing Soult across the Douro and organizing Portuguese troops for effective action. He then tried an invasion of Spain; but the co-operation of the natives was neither hearty nor courageous, and he was constrained to retreat into Portugal, after winning a very striking victory at Talavera on the Tagus.

Masséna, Marmont and Soult were then ordered to drive Viscount Wellington (for such was now his title) into the sea. Soult, partly from jealousy, failed to combine with the others. Masséna, who advanced down the Mondego—practically the only way left for him by the enemy—was beaten back with considerable loss at Busaco. He then sat and starved for some months in front of the lines of Torres Vedras. These were three-fold, and had been constructed with the utmost secrecy.

In one place "a loose stone wall, sixteen feet thick and forty feet high, was raised; across the great valley of Aruda a double line of abattis was drawn, not, as usual, of the limbs of trees, but of full-grown oaks and chestnuts, dug up with all their roots and branches, dragged by main force for several hundred yards, and then reset and crossed so that no human strength could break through. Breastworks, at convenient distances to defend this line of trees, were also cast up; and along the summits of the mountain, for a space of nearly three miles, including the salient points, other stone walls six feet high, by four in thickness, with banquettes, were constructed."¹ The French retreated in the spring, Wellington following and fighting the battle of Fuentes d'Onoro, when Masséna failed to prevent the loss of Almeida. Badajoz fell into Soult's hands, but his defeat at Albuera prevented further achievements.

The English now began to take the initiative, and Ciudad Rodrigo and Badajoz were besieged. The former secures a passage up the Douro: the latter up the Guadiana; and both were taken. The victory of Salamanca over Marmont followed (1812); but the capture of Madrid was premature. In 1813, however, owing to withdrawals, the English were no longer inferior in numbers to their opponents, and resumed the offensive with a will. The commander-in-chief followed the road by Salamanca and Burgos, Hill marched along

¹ Maguire, *Military Geography*, p. 192.

the Tagus Valley, and Graham pushed forwards along the Douro. By a beautifully executed combined movement the French were badly beaten at Vittoria, and lost 150 guns. Soult tried to save the difficult way to Bayonne, but he was gradually forced in and out of the Pyrenees, San Sebastian and Pampeluna fell, and the French were out of Spain. They had entered mainly by the eastern end of the mountain barrier: they were pushed out through the western passes. It will be remembered, too, that the Moors entered France mainly by the eastern gate, while Charlemagne attacked them through the Pass of Roncesvalles, where his rear-guard was cut off. The Black Prince, too, made his ill-starred, though temporarily successful attack on Henry of Trastamara along this same road, winning the battle of Navarrette, only to return loaded with debt and shattered in health, to perpetrate the atrocity of Limoges.

CHAPTER X

FRANCE—ASCENDANCY AND RETROGRESSION

1. **Geography of France.**—France is fairly well marked out by Nature as the home of one nation. Bounded by the Channel on the north, the Bay of Biscay on the west, and by the lofty Pyrenees and the Mediterranean on the south, this country has on the east a frontier of great complexity. From the north coast south-eastwards it is purely artificial, as it is bound to be, and is so framed as to share the strongholds of the district fairly equally with Belgium. The Meuse basin as far as Givet, a very small part of that of the Moselle (to include the fortress of Nancy) belong to the French. The Rhine, however, is wholly German in its middle course; the crest of the Vosges is far more a *limite naturelle* than the river itself; for it is very illogical to divide such an obvious physical unit as the middle Rhine basin between two Powers.

Crossing the Gate of Burgundy, the border line follows the Doubs for some distance, crosses the Rhone near Geneva, and then follows the crest of the Alps more or less faithfully to the sea near Mentone. In short, south of the Gate of Metz France includes the

Saône-Rhone basin, and the boundary is a perfectly reasonable one, with a few necessarily arbitrary local exceptions.

Broadly speaking, the core of France is the ancient Auvergne Plateau, the Rhoneward edge of which is called the Cevennes. Towards the west the slope of the land causes rivers to flow into the Bay of Biscay or the Channel. Most of the Garonne-Dordogne drainage has its origin in Auvergne, but this part of the country is infertile and population is scanty. Toulouse stands in a strong position, commanding the way *via* Carcassonne, Narbonne and Perpignan to Spain, and much lower down Bordeaux forms the heart of a very flourishing district, exporting brandy and claret. The Loire passes far away to the north, tapping some very fertile lands. Orléans, Tours, Angers and Nantes should be noticed. Far to the north-west lies Brittany, corresponding in a number of ways to our Cornwall, with the historic port of Brest.

The Seine, with its tributaries, the Yonne, the Aube, the Marne, the Aisne and the Oise, has within its basin the very heart and soul of France. Paris itself is there, and French history has, like French institutions, been centralized there in a most remarkable degree. Rouen and Le Havre call for notice, and Cherbourg, away to the north-west, is a defensive outpost. The Champagne country has Reims for its greatest city, while Picardy lies to the north, drained by the Somme,

on which stands Amiens. The Belgian border, running as it does across an extensive coal-field, is crowded with manufacturing towns, the chief of which on the French side are Lille, Roubaix, Tourcoing, Valenciennes and Cambrai.

The Rhone basin is quite distinctive, for the climatic influence of the Mediterranean extends far up its course. It is a great silk-producing region, and is dominated by Lyon. The industries of this great city are fed by the adjoining St. Etienne coal-field. The Saône basin, in which Dijon stands, is contained by the Langres Plateau, the Côte d'Or and the northern end of the Cevennes on the one hand and the Jura and Vosges on the other. Below Lyon the Isère and the Durance flow in from the Alps, and Avignon, Nîmes and Arles stand where the basin widens out to finally form a marshy delta. Marseille, one of the most ancient ports of the world, and Toulon, the head-quarters of the Mediterranean fleet, lie to the south-east. The whole country is somewhat deficient in minerals, but is extremely rich in agricultural products, and raises enormous quantities of wheat. Communication by canal is excellent, and by railway second to that of no country.

2. Main routes.—A brief reference to the main routes of France is necessary for a proper understanding of much of the history of the country. We take Paris as the most convenient as well as the most important centre. The way to Brest is by Le Mans and Rennes

while Le Mans also connects with Nantes and St. Nazaire *via* Angers. Another way is by Orléans and Tours. Bordeaux is reached from Tours, through Poitiers, and a line from Orléans passes Limoges on its way to Montauban and Toulouse. A very important line is the Paris-Lyon-Marseille, which connects with the Mediterranean Sea and the Suez Canal. Branching off at Dijon a route goes by Pontarlier and Neuchâtel to Berne. From Maçon, Chambéry is reached, and the Mont Cenis, the oldest of the longer Alpine tunnels, leads to Turin and the Plain of Lombardy.

Burgundy lies in the way of a line which goes by way of Troyes, Chaumont, Belfort and Mülhausen to Basle or northwards to Strassbourg; but the more direct way to the last-named, as we shall see later on, is *via* Châlons-sur-Marne and Nancy, whence also runs a way to Metz and so down the Mosel to Coblenz. Cologne is reached by a journey up the Oise towards Namur and Liège and Aachen,¹ and, finally, if the last line is quitted at Maubeuge, a journey through Mons leads to Brussels, to Antwerp, Rotterdam and Amsterdam. Connections with England are from Cherbourg to Southampton, Havre to Southampton, Dieppe to Newhaven, Boulogne to Folkestone, and Calais to Dover.

3. Development of the central kingdom.—The growth of a kingdom in the land we now call France may be

¹ Aix-la-Chapelle.

said to have begun with the break-up of Charlemagne's empire. Charles the Bold was allotted most of the present France, with the addition of Flanders and the Spanish March. Thus, as far back as 870, we find a kingdom roughly corresponding with the present territories—a fact which is some evidence of the geographical appropriateness of this political division. On the death of Charles the Bold, Charles the Fat was given charge; but he was deposed, and after many changes of government, Hugh Capet became real ruler in 987. He was crowned at Reims and made Paris his capital. It now remained to consolidate the power which centred on Paris; this took two or three centuries. The great duchies of Normandy, Brittany, Flanders, Aquitaine, Portou, Burgundy and Gascony began to grow up at the same time. Several of them passed to Henry of Anjou, who became king of England; but the carelessness of Cœur de Lion and the ineptitude of his brother John lost the trans-Channel possessions to the English crown (1206). That chapter was not yet closed, however, for the Hundred Years' War broke out in 1338, and bade fair to shake the French monarchy to its foundations. We will briefly review it in its topographical aspect.

4. The Hundred Years' War.—France could be attacked either directly along the Seine, or through Picardy (opposite, that is, to Dover), and in conjunction with the people of Flanders, or through Aquitaine. In

either case command of the sea was necessary. This was gained at Sluys, after our southern coast towns had suffered from fire and sword. Attacks by way of Flanders failed completely; but finally Edward landed in Normandy. His march was from Cape La Hogue to Caen, and thence to Rouen. The passage of the Seine being strongly contested, he marched up the stream to Poissy—nearly as far as Paris—crossed there, and then made for Flanders, forcing the Somme on his way. Being able to choose his own ground at Crécy, Edward faced round and gave battle, which ended in a wonderful success for the English. Calais soon fell. After Edward's raid, in itself of no great importance, came a lull, for which the Black Death was mainly responsible. In 1355 two descents were projected. That in Normandy was prevented by storms. An expedition under the Black Prince marched inland from Bordeaux towards Orléans, but was headed off and caught at Poitiers. He posted himself very skilfully, however, and administered a very severe beating to a force vastly superior in numbers. A terrible insurrection of the peasantry led to such suffering in France that eventually peace was made at Bretigny, not far from Paris. Fighting was renewed in 1369. The French were under the able guidance of Bertrand du Guesclin, and nearly all our possessions slipped out of our hands, partly, indeed, because we lost command of the sea.

In 1415 Henry V, for reasons which we do not need to

discuss, took advantage of internal dissensions to attack France. Like Edward, he sailed from Southampton and landed at Harfleur¹ and took that stronghold, thus clearing his way inland. Having but few men, however, Henry determined to make an audacious dash for Calais. He travelled along the coast to Fécamp, Arques (just behind Dieppe) and Eu. Finding the passage of the Somme seriously obstructed by the destruction of the bridges, he was compelled to march up it, past Abbéville, Airaines, Amiens, Boves and Nesle, till he finally passed over at Péronne. Making straight for Calais, he was forced to give battle at Agincourt. Here a vastly superior French army was disastrously defeated, owing to bad generalship and good shooting. No result of any importance accrued. Normandy was again invaded in 1417, Rouen was taken, and Paris threatened, and largely as the result of the feud of Burgundians and Armagnacs, peace was made at Troyes, south-east of Paris, on the Seine. The Armagnacs had not submitted, and in the next year the Duke of Clarence was defeated and slain at Beaugé in Anjou. Henry crossed over and took Meaux, a stronghold near Paris, after a siege, the effects of which cost him his life.

Henry VI was an infant when his father died. The Duke of Bedford succeeded to the command, and won battles at Crevant on the Yonne, securing his com-

¹ Just by the present Le Havre.

munications with Burgundy, and at Verneuil,¹ driving the French beyond the Loire. Orléans was besieged, but the intervention of Jeanne d' Arc turned the tide, and with Burgundy renouncing the English alliance, the French won a victory at Formigny, on the Norman coast, Cherbourg was taken, our last stronghold in Normandy, and soon all that remained to us was Calais, held until 1558.

The Hundred Years' War was the failure of a great attempt to ignore the simplest teachings of geography. It was really impossible for a small and thinly populated country like medieval England to keep a permanent footing in the lands of a much more numerous race *of equal attainments*, with no natural frontiers to make recapture difficult. Only at one time did our success appear possible, in 1420, and then not for long.


5. Growth of the Power of France.—The death of Charles the Bold gave Burgundy to Louis XI and greatly enhanced the power of the French monarchy. From this point begins the aggrandizement of France, a work carried on, with a severe check caused by the religious wars succeeding the Reformation, fairly uniformly till the career of Richelieu startled the country upon an aggressive policy, in pursuit of which it overreached itself. The Thirty Years' War, to which full enough reference has been made in Chapter VI,

¹ 100 kilom. west of Paris.

marked the first definite steps in territorial aggrandizement, and pushed the lands of France as far as the Pyrenees, Roussillon being annexed in 1640, and sundry lands along the Rhine (Metz, Toul, Verdun) in 1648.

So far, France could not be accused of an undue ambition. But she began to press over the border of the Spanish Netherlands, and in 1672 a campaign under the leadership of Turenne was only stopped in front of Amsterdam by the cutting of the dykes. The breathing-space gave time for a strong coalition to form, against which France struggled in vain. Lower Elsass was occupied by Imperial troops; but Turenne sent his men behind the Vosges to rendezvous at Belfort, captured Mülhausen, defeated the Great Elector at Colmar, and "bundled the whole army neck and crop out of Elsass across the river at Strassbourg." He was, however, killed soon after, and peace was made at Nijmegen in 1678, marking the limits of Louis XIV's power. He could never hope again to win any success without having to face a strong coalition.

William of Orange soon succeeded to the throne of England, soon after the revocation of the Edict of Nantes had awakened the old religious prejudices against Louis. Strassbourg was occupied and immediately fortified in 1681; no power could win the city back, and the Mediterranean, too, was largely brought under French influence. War broke out again, and the Treaty of Ryswick in 1698 gave the Dutch a strong line of



border fortresses. William III had ousted the Stuarts from the English throne, and had forced France to acknowledge his own right, so *changing the personal duel into a national one between France and England*; and England had won the first bout by gaining command of the sea. The next scene in the drama, the War of the Spanish Succession,¹ ended in the temporary decay of France, which continued until the Revolution threw the nation into a blaze.

6. The French Revolution.—When the French had put an end to monarchy for a time and had openly defied all Europe, Prussia, Austria and England joined in a half-hearted league to punish the recalcitrant nation. An invasion of France resulted in the Battle of Valmy, between Verdun and Reims, when the Republic was saved, and woke to a tremendous military vigour. The battle of Jemappes, near Mons, opened Belgium to Dumouriez. He was driven out, but Jourdan and Pichegru afterwards overran the whole of the Low Countries. Then came the accession to power of Bonaparte, and the virtual annexation of the northern half of Italy at the expense of Austria. By 1812 the French Empire extended from the Ebro to the Baltic (viewed from south-west to north-east), Switzerland had been annexed, as well as the Illyrian Provinces. From Mecklenburg to the Alps was under Napoleon's "protection," and so were the Grand Duchy

¹ See Chapters VI and IX.

of Warsaw and the kingdom of Naples. Spain, too, was temporarily occupied, and Prussia, though nominally still a kingdom, was really under the heel of the new Empire. Nearly the whole of western Europe was dominated by France; but the struggle ended, as only it could, at Leipsig and Waterloo, and the kingdom of Louis XVIII was bounded by the old frontiers; Switzerland and the Netherlands were restored to independence, and French influence was removed from Italy. The process of shrinkage was finally closed by the loss of Elsass and Lorraine after the disastrous war of 1870.

7. Paris and its approaches.—We will close our consideration of France by illustrating the influence of the topography of Paris and its eastern approaches upon events in 1814 and 1870-1. In 1813 Blücher, with the main Prussian army, known as the army of Silesia, crossed the Rhine in three columns at Coblenz, Mannheim and Mainz. These were to strike along the Mosel. Schwartzenberg turned the mountains of the Jura by marching through Switzerland and coming northwards to meet Blücher, leaving the Rhine fortresses behind him. Farther north, Antwerp, still faithful to Napoleon, was invested, at Lyon Augereau failed to do anything to stop the Austrians, though he might have hindered them seriously as they emerged from the Jura, and Soult had his hands very full with Wellington in the south. The campaign therefore resolved itself

into a series of hammer-like blows by Napoleon in Champagne upon the scattered forces of the allies. Blücher was between the Marne and the Aube, with Paris as his objective, and a series of engagements took place in which Napoleon, screening his movements behind the Seine, cut up division after division of Blücher's army at Brienne, Champaubert, Montmirail and Vauxchamps, and of Schwartzberg's at Nangis and Montereau. After a pause the Emperor failed to win the battles of Crâonne and Laon, to the west of Reims. Eleven days later he struck, in vain, against the southern force at Arcis-sur-Aube. With marvellous tenacity the Emperor marched on the invaders' lines of communications towards the Vosges, but the allies did not heed him, and Paris fell.

Compare this with the Franco-Prussian War. When Metz was invested the Prussians advanced on the Marne. Marshal MacMahon retired to Nancy and Châlons-sur-Marne, and thence made a *détour* *via* Reims and Rethel in order to relieve Bazaine. The battle of Beaumont shut him up in Sedan, and there he, his army, Napoleon III and the second Empire suffered ruin. The German advance on Paris was in two divisions: the 3rd Army Corps made, by way of Rethel, Reims and Epernay to the Marne, Montmirail and Colommiers, investing the south of Paris. The 4th Army Corps passed by way of Vouziers and Reims to the Marne at Claye, and took up its position on the

north of the city. Strassbourg fell meanwhile, the Loire army was beaten at Orléans, St. Quentin was taken, Metz capitulated far in the rear, and Paris was in the end forced to admit the victorious Prussians. The two sets of operations in 1814 and 1870-1 are, in point of fact, strikingly alike, and necessarily so from the formation of the country.

8. **Summary.**—The history of France has been centralized in a remarkable degree in Paris, a capital naturally strong in itself, but very liable to attack owing to its dangerous nearness to the northern sea-board and (more particularly) to the "Gates" of the Rhine. French history largely oscillates between attempts to gain more and more eastward territory in order to secure those gates, and attempts on the part of enemies to weaken her by controlling those approaches themselves. A determined effort to go further, and secure the Low Countries, is met by a hostile coalition and foiled (1678). A further effort is also unsuccessful (1715), and in addition, an inveterate foe is created which is over and over again to shatter French prestige at sea. A Revolution takes place, one of the greatest of all human convulsions, and the tide of Napoleonic success floods most of Europe, to ebb and leave the country purified but exhausted in 1815. Again the restless spirit is aroused, and Italy, the Crimea, the Rhine and Paris see the partial rise and terrible fall of a noble and courageous nation. France has been rich

in great men ; but her greatest men have often betrayed her. The intoxication of success has been too much for them ; and the moderation and discrimination of Richelieu and Mazarin and Colbert, the men who built up a mighty power, gave results which were ruined by the excessive ambition of Louis XIV, Napoleon I, and Napoleon III.

CHAPTER XI

THE EXPANSION OF RUSSIA

1. **Geography of Russia.**—Russia is by far the largest European domain, and occupies an immense extent of plain, open on the north, and continuously bounded on the south by folded mountain ranges of great altitude. Apart from the Urals, practically the whole of European Russia is under 1000 feet high. Owing to the remarkable uniformity of relief, added to which is the fact that the country is entirely open to Arctic influences, the climate exhibits very uniform characteristics.¹ A terribly cold winter prevails everywhere, not even Black Sea ports being always ice-free, while the heat of the summer varies in intensity according to the latitude. The zones of tundra, taiga (forest) and steppe merge into one another with no abrupt changes, and a great proportion of the land is abundantly fertile. Indeed, the natural resources of Russia are probably not inferior to those of the United States of America; but they are not adequately exploited anywhere except in Trans-Caucasia.

Owing to the physical uniformity we have just


¹ See p. 17.

noticed, Russia does not lend itself to any human subdivision that is not arbitrary. It is traversed by great river courses, but these are inextricably mixed, and most even of the larger streams may be said to possess "spheres of influence" rather than basins.¹ We draw attention to some of these. The Arctic Sea receives the Petchora, and the White Sea the Northern Dwina, Archangel standing at the mouth. The districts drained by them, naturally enough, are thinly peopled, but are not unimportant, as a good fur trade and a fairly brisk commerce in timber passes this way. The Vistula drains to the Baltic, but its mouth and all of its lower course are in Prussian territory—an important fact. The southern drainage flows into the Caspian and the Black Seas. The Volga rises in the Valdai Hills, passes Tver, Yaroslavl and Kostroma, receives the Oka at Nizhni Novgorod (famous as far as China as a trading centre), turns southwards at Kazan, and fringes the Volga Heights for several hundreds of miles. The Kama is a great tributary flowing south-westwards from Perm, and further down Simbirsk, Samara and Saratov stand on alternate banks. Near Sarepta the mighty stream bends in an easterly direction, and straggles through salt-marsh and plain to discharge its waters by innumerable distributaries into the Caspian. Astrakhan is the great delta port.

¹ Compare the railway map in Bartholomew's *Survey Atlas of England and Wales*.

The Don and Donets pass through fertile steppe districts, while the latter has an important coal-field upon its banks. Kharkov, Rostov and Taganrog belong to this system. The Dniepr is an important highway, and rises in Smolensk. Kiev stands on the right bank, and Kherson is the port, not far east of Odessa. The Bug and Dniestr are roughly parallel to the Carpathians, and the Pruth, which enters the Danube at the fortress of Galatz, forms the boundary between the fertile Russian province of Bessarabia and the similar territory of Romania, where much wheat is grown.

2. **The Land and the People.**—Russia is in the main an agricultural country. The inhabitants therefore display all the bucolic characteristics found elsewhere under similar conditions. They are a slow-moving, kind-hearted, honest people, but very ignorant and unlearned. In the wheat regions modern appliances are rare, and oxen draw wooden ploughs lazily over the rich soil, which could, with capital and industry, be made immeasurably more productive. Astonishing figures are given to illustrate the lack of elementary education. Sixty-five thousand schools contain rather more than 3,000,000 scholars of both sexes, *i. e.* one pupil to every 34 inhabitants. In the Caucasus the ratio is 1:50, and Siberia is even worse off. The United Kingdom has one pupil in every seven inhabitants. It is small wonder, then, that Russia is not a progressive country, and that an exclusive nobility has always



combined with a nominally absolute monarchy to govern by force alone.

In the case of continental peoples whose frontiers are easily assailable, compulsory military service is always necessary. France, Germany, Austria and Russia are cases in point. Geographical exigencies alone lead to what is repugnant to the majority of men. Our country is protected by a sea frontier and a powerful navy, and hitherto conscription has been found unnecessary. Thus does the physical affect the political. Russia has a huge army, and can put $4\frac{1}{2}$ million men in the field—though she has never been able to concentrate an overwhelmingly large force at the decisive point, as a matter of fact. The inhabitants of Russia have seemed of late to be awakening; but the task of overcoming poverty, illiteracy and famine is a long and dreary one, and many woes must be accomplished before that patient, persevering, courageous and truly great people emerges into full liberty of mind and estate.

3. Beginnings of Russia.—We shall not glean many important geographical lessons from our consideration of the history of Russia. The whole matter may be summed up as a continuous, almost unbroken, gradual expansion of a kingdom centralized, first in Kiev, then in Moscow. Emerging from a life and death struggle with Asiatic hordes, this Power goes on absorbing, bit by bit, all its neighbours of the plain, until it reaches the confines of other great peoples. We shall trace

this growth from its beginning, as it has a living interest for every Englishman; and we strongly urge the student to follow the chapter out on a good political map. The physical interest is only slight.¹

When the Germanic tribes migrated to the south-west of Europe, a mixture of Slav races settled in the lowlands of Eastern Europe. These were at constant strife among themselves, and it is said that the ubiquitous Northmen were called in to restore order. Rurik accordingly came and made Novgorod his centre. He gradually extended his power down the Dniepr, and Christianity and the culture of the Byzantine Empire found their way into the kingdom of his successors. The Mongols, however, found Russia an easy conquest, and from 1238 to 1462 their yoke was heavy upon the land. Then Ivan III arose, and, taking Moscow for his capital, began a career of conquest. Novgorod was at this time an independent republic. The different Tartar Khanates to the east were subdued; Permian was annexed in 1472, Novgorod in 1478, and the last great Mongol invasion was crushed by a victory on the Oka a year or two after. Tver, Rostov and Yaroslavl, and then Viatka, were acquired by 1500. Vassili (Basil), in the course of his career, took Smolensk from Poland, while Ivan the Terrible, the first monarch to style himself Czar, laid hold of

¹ See Grant Robertson's *Historical Atlas* (Methuen), Plate 29.



Kazan, and by the year 1571 Russian territory extended southwards to the Caspian.

4. The struggle with Sweden.—A century of darkness and disunion followed, during which a Mongol raid reached Moscow and the city was burned. Then came the era of Sweden's greatness, when all Finland, as far south as Livonia, was in the hands of the Scandinavian king. In 1654, however, the Cossacks transferred their allegiance from Poland to the Czar, and a very valuable allegiance it has always proved. In another forty years Azov had been taken from the Turks, and a new era of expansion was thus begun. The eighteenth century opened with a defeat at the hands of Charles XII at Narva, across the north-east border of Esthonia. The result was, however, reversed at Ehresfer in Livonia, and further victories in the same region led to the founding of the great city of St. Petersburg. Courland and Vilna were occupied, and in 1706 a victory at Kalisch, followed by another at Lesno in Mohilev led up to the crowning triumph of Poltava, when Charles, who had allowed himself to be drawn into Southern Russia, was completely defeated. The Peace of Nystad in 1721 gave to Peter the Great Livonia, Esthonia and part of Poland. A further war ended in the Peace of Abo and the acquisition of Southern Finland.

5. Eighteenth Century Annexations.—Progress was steadily maintained from the days of Peter onwards, and Catherine II brought her country much temporal

advantage. In 1772 came the first partition of Poland, a luckless and shrinking domain, kept in a ferment by Muscovite intrigue and violence, and then held up as a turbulent country which must, in its own truest interests, be absorbed by its neighbours. White Russia fell to Catherine as the spoil of this partition. The Turks next came in for attention, and by the Treaty of Kutchuk-Kainardji gave up Azov and lands on the Don. The Crimea was soon annexed, and by the Treaty of Jassy in 1792 Ochakov and the Euxine shore from the Bug to the Dniestr fell to Russia. The second partition of Poland saw Lithuania, Volhynia and Podolia, and the third saw land from Galicia to the Lower Dwina, with Courland, swept into the maw of the growing monster. When Catherine II died in 1796 the boundaries of her realm were the Niemen, the Dniestr and the Black Sea. By 1831 Poland was quite extinguished.

6. The Eastern Question.—In the nineteenth century Russia was very busy in Turan, a region of no great charm, and not in itself desirable, but containing lands belonging to nobody in particular, which might be useful as stepping-stones in case of accidents in Persia, Armenia, Afghanistan, or possibly even India. In the year 1800 Kuban and Daghestan, on the hither side of the Caucasus, as well as all of the lands on the other side of the range (save Poti), were in Moslem hands. By 1878 the provinces of Kutais, Tiflis, Kars, Elisa-

bethpol, Baku and Erivan passed into Muscovite hands. At the beginning of the same century a line along the forty-fifth parallel (roughly) as far as Lake Balkash was the southern limit of the Czar's Empire. By 1885 the Persian boundary was reached, Afghanistan was touched, the Tian Shan separated Chinese Turkestan from Russian, and English territory was only a few miles off across the eastern spurs of the Hindu Kush. So it is to-day.

It will have been seen from what has gone before that Russia has expanded from an inland centre, and has gradually reached the sea to north, south, east and west. Peter the Great and Catherine II secured a predominant influence in the Baltic (which Germany has, beyond a doubt, now usurped). In this quarter the great Empire is virtually unassailable. The Turkish wars, which we have already briefly summarized,¹ gave half the Black Sea to Russia; but the jealousy of the other European Powers has forbidden the seizure of the key to the Mediterranean, Constantinople. Austria has always wanted it for herself; Turkey has always been able to keep it; and England sees in the command of the Bosphorus a menace to India *viâ* the Red Sea. Checked in the Black Sea, the Czar has looked eastwards. A great railroad across Siberia, and the seizure of Port Arthur, led in the end to collision with Japan, and Vladivostok is now the only outlet in that

¹ P. 97.

direction. If Russia again seeks a breathing-vent the Persian Gulf seems to be all that offers. Nowhere does the great Empire reach the open ocean. It is everywhere jealously confined to inland seas. Russian policy, pushful as it has always been, and objectionable to her neighbours, is but a necessary commentary upon her geographical position. To look at the map of Eurasia it seems impossible that this vast domain, this indomitable though sorely distressed nation, shall not at last, at some future time, burst the barrage and flow unchecked into the outer seas. That time, however, is not yet.

Plate VI.





CHAPTER XII

THE BALKAN PENINSULA

1. **General features.**—The most easterly of the three Mediterranean peninsulas partakes but slightly of the physical characteristics of the other two. In climate and productions it bears a fairly close resemblance to Italy and Spain, so far as purely Mediterranean plants are concerned; but, apart from Romania, which we include mainly on historical grounds, the land is not conspicuous for fertility, and the magnificent crops of Lombardy, and the excellent fruits of the Iberian seaboard, have no counterpart here. European shrubs, olives, figs, oranges and lemons flourish along the whole west coast, but they are poorly developed in the south, and are altogether wanting in the interior, where the forests and fruits of Central Europe are to be found. In the Adrianople plain steppes exist like those of Asia, and animal life is equally characteristic of Northern Europe, Southern Europe and Asia. In short, the Peninsula is, as one would naturally expect, a transition area.

Structurally, the Balkans are a continuation of the Carpathians. They resume the fold-range broken by

the Iron Gate, and, curving round, enclose the basin of the Lower Danube. A further offshoot, the Rhodope, bounds the plain of Eastern Rumelia. This eastern portion of the Peninsula is largely Archæan in structure, with basins filled with Tertiary lacustrine deposits, and divided by interlocking ridges cut through by streams. The western ridges are a series of folded secondary rocks, which, being highly crystalline in the south, impart to the landscape a very bold and rugged nature. Here we find the Karst type of scenery,¹ limestone heights and clay valleys, with torrential streams which in summer lose most of their volume and sink into the porous ground. Considerable volcanic activity has been apparent in the past, more especially in the Cyclades Islands, and to-day that activity has by no means ceased. Hot springs, pumice-strewn areas, and earthquakes remind the inhabitants of some parts of what may happen in the future, and "it has been calculated that there are on an annual average ninety-four earthquake days in all Greece, and a serious disaster happens at some point every nine months."² The rainfall on the Illyrian coast is very heavy, and the short streams on that side carry their silt right down the steep slopes, to deposit it on a low and swampy littoral.

2. Physical features and human characteristics.—Few lands have shown more clearly the influence of physical

¹ See p. 43.

² Hogarth, *The Nearer East*, p. 88.

features on man, both in the past and the present, as the Balkan Peninsula. The relief is most intricate. Rugged mountains of formidable height are spread in crazy confusion, with very little in the way of definite trend-lines. They enclose valleys of varying fertility, and have invariably tended to isolate clan from clan. The history of ancient Greece is one long illustration of this. The nature of the ground is such that it is not possible for districts and provinces to naturally form themselves, at any rate in the south. Hence the ancient city-states, Argos, Sparta, Thebes, Corinth and Athens, each maintaining a sort of supremacy in its own district, but never uniting the people. Deadly jealousies existed between these diverse states. The maritime Athenian poured contempt upon his Theban neighbour beyond Mount Cithaeron, calling him "Bœotian pig," and the sea-faring, versatile Corinthian was diametrically opposite to the obstinate, dour, inflexible Lacedæmonian. What wars were waged, what blood was shed, what treacheries perpetrated, and all between men who spoke a common language and practised the rites of a common religion, Greek history tells from beginning to end. In short, the disunity of the Hellenes of old can be almost entirely traced to the broken and non-uniform nature of the country. The ancient Greek states were, as we have said, named from their nuclear cities. Attica was the country surrounding Attica. Argolis encircled Argos. Laconia was the land about

Sparta rather than the basin of the Eurotas. North of the Peloponnese or Morea districts as such are occasionally possible. Thessaly is the well-watered plain enclosed by Pindus, Othrys, Ossa, Pelion and the offshoots of Olympus. Macedonia comprises the lower basins of the Struma and Vardar. Eastern Rumelia is the Maritsa basin. Servia is drained in the main by the Morava, while Romania and Bulgaria are the northern and southern portions respectively of the Lower Danube lands.

The Balkan Peninsula, then, is a maze of mountain and valley, traversed by three main feature-lines, the Balkans, the Rhodope, and the long, irregular north-south Spine, which springs from the Illyrian Alps in Bosnia, and runs along the eastern side of Albania into Aetolia, to form the backbone of the Peloponnese. Main routes are few and communication, especially across country, is very difficult. Yet the Balkan Peninsula has always played a great part in history. Why is this? There are two answers. In ancient times, when every citizen was either soldier or senator, Athens, Sparta, Thebes, Corinth, Argos were wonderfully powerful—advanced enough in civilization (Athens especially) to produce poets, historians, orators, statesmen, soldiers, sailors and artists of the very highest order. Indeed, the Athenians of old have educated the whole world. The all-conquering Romans learned from them, and every architect, artist and

student of the science of language goes to them to-day for very meat and drink. So it was that Persia in her might could not subdue the Hellenes, and Rome's conquest of Greece was succeeded by an all-pervading Greek civilization in Rome. Greek philosophy, Greek philology, Greek customs, Greek buildings, and even Greek gods were adopted by the victorious Romans. Can we attribute these phenomena to geographical causes? Manifestly not: for where is such a civilization to be found to-day? The land is the same; but the people have passed away, and hybrid races, with no elements of greatness, occupy the land. No doubt scenic surroundings helped the imagination of poet and painter, while the marble of Paros bred men of the stamp of Pheidias, as that of Carrara fed the genius of Michael Angelo. But it is misleading to carry ideas of that stamp too far. Physical conditions were, in point of fact, only contributory to the characteristics of the ancient Hellenes—not a root cause. The greatness of Greece was due to racial phenomena: the fall of Greece was certain from the first—in spite of common religion, athletics and language—owing to orography. The highlands of Scotland, the highlands of Afghanistan, the highlands of Albania, have always made for disunity.

In modern times the attention of the western world has been centred upon that priceless strategic and commercial goal, Constantinople. The importance of

its capture in 1453 has already been fully discussed.¹ Since that time it has been held by Turkey. At times the Ottoman Empire has been thought to be on the verge of dissolution, and great interest in the fate of the famous port has been taken by Austria and Russia; —always without final success.

3. Ancient Greece: The Persian Invasions.—In the year 493 B.C., the probable year of Themistocles' archonship, Darius sent heralds to every city in Greece to demand the customary "earth and water." This proposal of submission was everywhere rejected with scorn, in some places with violence, and Darius prepared a great expedition. Datis and Artaphernes made across the Aegean through the Cyclades. Naxos and other islands submitted, and the Persians landed not far from Eretria in Euboea. The city was betrayed in true Greek fashion after a six days' siege. The invaders then coasted southwards to Attica, drawing up at Marathon. Here the Persians landed, and Miltiades attacked them, Athens being left virtually undefended. A determined downhill charge threw the Asiatics back to their ships, and they embarked with some difficulty and considerable loss. The fleet sailed round as far as Phalerum² to attack the city itself, but the Athenians crossed from Marathon by forced marches and were drawn up ready for another fight. Seeing them, the

¹ See p. 49.

² Close to Athens, on the south.

Persians gave up the expedition and sailed home. A rebellion in Egypt and the death of Darius put a stop to the renewal of hostilities and gave Greece ten years' respite, till Xerxes set out in person. The Hellenes drew together with an unwonted unanimity to resist him. The Hellespont was bridged, and the whole invading host defiled across. Passing Thrace, the troops reached Macedonia and traversed the peninsula of Chalcidice, and the navy met them at Therma (Salonica). Proceeding thence, the Asiatic force was threatened with opposition at the Vale of Tempe; but a turning movement settled the matter, and resistance temporarily collapsed. The next stand must now be at Thermopylae or the Isthmus of Corinth. The former was decided upon, and the allied fleet met that of the Persians at Artemisium, on the north-east of Euboea, where a long and (owing to the Thermopylae incident) indecisive struggle took place. Meanwhile, a Persian fleet, endeavouring to round Euboea and so surround the Greeks, was dashed to pieces by storms.

The fight at Thermopylae is well known. The pass is very narrow, and runs between high hills and the sea, and there, after a disastrous series of frontal attacks, the Spartan position was turned by a devious inland march, and nearly the whole defending force wiped out. The Great king advanced into Boeotia, and Athens was in dire danger. The city was evacuated, and its inhabitants, taking refuge in Troezen, staked all upon

the fleet. If this could be checked the enemy's unopposed progress to the Isthmus of Corinth might be checked too. The whole fleet was caught by the Persians in the Bay of Salamis, and a furious action was fought. This ended in a decisive, though not crushing defeat for the invaders. Xerxes went home. His remaining army engaged the allies at Platæa, on the northern slopes of Mount Cithaeron, and there the Persian army was annihilated. The promontory of Mycale, near Miletus, saw the sequel, when the army and fleet of the enemy were surprised, the latter taken *en bloc*, and the former routed. Thus ended the Asiatic attempt on Greece.

4. **Philip of Macedon.**—With the successive supremacies of Athens, Sparta and Thebes we will not deal here. The Peloponnesian War, which ended in the ruin of the first-named, has but few geographical lessons for us, raging as it did in every nook and cranny of the southern part of the Peninsula, by land and by sea, as well as in Syracuse. The main thing we learn from the struggle is the frequency of tergiversation and treachery, born, we doubt not, of the complicated relief of a land which has always made real unity impossible.

The career of Philip of Macedon, however, does teach us something by comparison with that of the Persians and of later peoples. The Macedonians, a mixed and semi-barbarous race, claimed a kinship with the Greeks,

but were always looked upon as foreigners, and had very little in common with them. In 352 B.C. war raged in Thessaly, where Philip attacked the Phocians. Winning a battle at Pagasae, a port on the gulf now named after Volos, he occupied Magnesia. Pressing his advantage, he made for Phocis itself, but history repeated itself, and he received a temporary check at Thermopylae. For a year or two he accordingly turned to Thrace, Illyria and Epirus, and, being uniformly victorious, secured lands to the west and the north-east of his original domain. Chalcidice (Chalkis) was annexed in 348. The next step was a peace with Athens. Her opposition being now withdrawn, he seized Thermopylae and occupied Phocis. This aggression roused Athens once more, and the celebrated Philippics of Demosthenes stirred up the people. Meanwhile Byzantium (afterwards Constantinople, the value of which, as an emporium for grain, and as a passage way from the Euxine, was already considerable) was threatened, but relieved by the admiral Phocion. Philip made for Bœotia, and in that country was fought the fateful battle of Chaeroneia, which marked the end of Greek freedom. Athens, Thebes and Corinth alone fought for the liberty of Hellas.¹ Elis, Messene, Arcadia, Argos stood aloof, and Thessaly actually helped Macedon. The narrow spirit of local ambition, the

¹ Greece.

proverbial cult of the parish pump, ruined Greece, and Thebes, Athens and other cities had to submit. Over and over again factiousness and treachery have told their tale in this land, and we cannot but think that a great deal of this can be directly traced to physical conditions.

5. **Russia and Turkey.**—We have said that in ancient times Athens was the focus of the activities of man. Later, Constantinople, for abundant geographical reasons already discussed,¹ became the centre of attraction. The line of the Danube, the Balkan passes, and the command of the Black Sea ports will be seen to be the important points, as practically the whole question has lain between Russia and Turkey. Austria, it is true, from time to time, more especially in the eighteenth century, made efforts to crush the Ottoman power, but met with the non-success that seems to have pretty uniformly dogged the steps of that power. We therefore conclude our glance at the Balkan Peninsula with a short review of the late Russo-Turkish wars.

In 1828 the main obstacles to the advance of the invading Muscovites were the Pruth, the Danube and the Balkans. The Turks had, on the Danube, the following strongholds: Vidin, Rahova, Nikopoli, Svistov, Rushchuk, Silistria, Hirsova, Braila, Tulcea. The second line of defence consisted of Varna on the Black

¹ P. 42.

Sea, Pravadia, Shumla and Tirnovo. Constantinople itself can be made virtually impregnable by land or by sea. These points remain the same for all campaigns. On May 7, 1828, the Pruth was crossed, and Braila on the Danube capitulated. Shumla was unsuccessfully beset, and Varna, after a tremendous siege, fell by treachery. The next year saw the fall of Silistria, and, a force being left investing Shumla, the Balkans were passed without difficulty. Adrianople was entered, but Diebitsch's communications were only precarious. Peace was signed at Adrianople in time to save the Russian army from famine and plague.

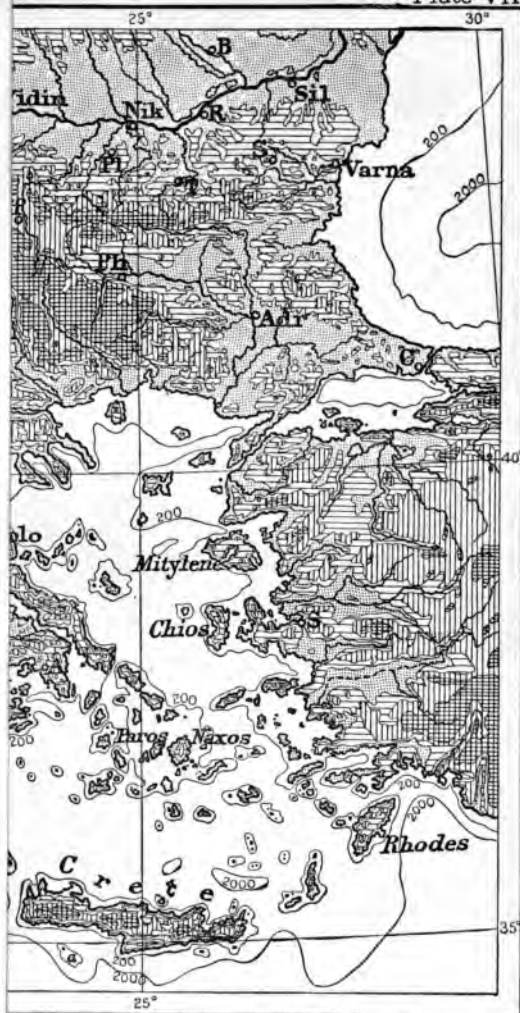
In 1853 war broke out again. At the outbreak the Russians were well through Moldavia and Wallachia, and the Turks were concentrated at Vidin, with garrisons holding the fortresses mentioned above. Omar Pasha took the offensive and crossed the Danube near Vidin, Rushchuk and Turtukai, driving the enemy out of Kalafat (near Vidin). They in their turn laid siege to Silistria, but it held out, and England and France came to the rescue.

In 1878 the invaders passed to the Danube, and the Dobruda was occupied and held unmolested. The chief Danubian strongholds were in Turkish hands throughout. Bulgaria bore the brunt of hostilities in the main. The Danube itself was eventually crossed at Galatz, while the main army, aiming at a point somewhere opposite

Bucarest, passed over in the vicinity of Svistov. Gourko advanced towards the Balkans and took Tirnovo. Nikopoli also fell. Osman Pasha brought up men from Vidin and Sofia and occupied Plevna, on the right flank of the Russians. This place was hotly assailed, but in vain, the besiegers making a great mistake in not merely masking it and passing on. Gourko, in conjunction with Mirsky, crossed the Balkans by the Hainkioi and Shipka Passes, and the Turks fell back upon Philippopolis. Being reinforced, they drove the Russians back, but failed to force the Shipka Pass. Plevna fell in the succeeding winter. Gourko made an advance immediately, in spite of the season. Sofia was occupied, Suleiman's army of 60,000 men was broken up, and Philippopolis was taken. Radetsky, too, surrounded a Turkish army south of the Shipka Pass and captured nearly the whole 36,000 men. Adrianople was occupied, and the Russians advanced on Constantinople, peace being concluded *just outside* at San Stefano.

6. **Summary.**—The geography of the Balkan Peninsula is exceedingly complicated. Three main trend-lines may be observed, those of the Balkans, Rhodope and Pindus. The western side of the country has never held a centre of influence. Ancient Greece was the home of the city state, and its history has the political side far more developed than the geographical. Athens, Sparta and Thebes all held a temporary and precarious supremacy, and naval history is interesting but very

Plate VII.





desultory. The chief geographical points are connected with the great invasions, viz. those of the Persians, of Philip of Macedon, and, in modern days, of the Russians. Modern history centres entirely on Constantinople, *via* the Danube.

CHAPTER XIII

MIGRATIONS

1. **The Origin of Migrations.**—The study of migrations is geographically important upon two grounds: firstly, the consideration of motives; secondly, that of routes. Further, it was the successful migrations which peopled Europe and coloured its civilization and history, and the unsuccessful which gave virility and unity to the resisting peoples. All, then, have a bearing alike upon History and upon Geography. We propose to mention the chief invasions of barbarian tribes from east and south, and to show their general trend-lines. One or two points must be borne in mind. They all took place in the dark ages, and we have no Plutarch's Lives nor Cæsar's Commentaries to give us minute topographical details. We can, indeed, guess in places where the course of events must have been, because the movements of these peoples, based upon hearsay, or upon impromptu scouting, and not made easy by maps, must have been instinctive rather than scientifically thought out by a Napoleon or an Alexander. Some of the warring tribes were mere plunderers, whose only motives were booty and

slaughter. Others were unable to subsist where they were, and so pushed westwards into more genial and more fertile lands, hoping to find there an abiding home. We make no attempt here to trace the origin of these races, nor do we intend to discuss the many debatable points of archæology or anthropology that suggest themselves. We confine ourselves to the geographical side of the question as far as is practicable.

2. **The Alans.**—This tribe is first authentically heard of in the neighbourhood of the Caspian Sea, probably in the fertile portions of the Kirghiz region; and History would no doubt have had little to say about them but for the pressure put upon them by the Huns. They were dislodged by their more powerful successors and pushed forward at the close of the fourth century, and migrated due west. They passed the Don, the Bug and the Dniestr and found a temporary home in fertile Rumania. Thence they passed up the Danube into Bavaria, through the Burgundy Gate into France, and again through the Gate of Carcassonne into Spain. Here the Visigoths attacked them in 418, and they disappeared as a people. The Vandals and Suevi are supposed to have been associated with them.

3. **The Huns.**—This truly terrible people, styled by A. H. Keane¹ “a heterogeneous collection of Mongol, Tungus, Turki, and perhaps even Finnish hordes under

¹ *Man: Past and Present*, p. 305.

a Mongol military caste," came apparently from the steppes of Northern China. They found their way between the southern end of the Urals and the Caspian, and, as we have seen, displaced the occupiers of that region about the year 375. They then travelled, like the Alans, up the Danube, and Attila had his headquarters somewhere near Tokay. After subduing, with great cruelty, practically the whole of Central Europe, and menacing Italy, they invaded France and made for Orléans. A great combined army threatening them, Attila drew them off to Châlons-sur-Marne, where a tremendous battle was fought. As a result, he withdrew to his camp, and then left the country (451), to descend upon Italy. Here he burst a blood vessel and died, and his followers, who had only been kept together by his successes, melted away.

4. **The Goths.**—These were a Teutonic race from the south of Scandinavia. The *Visigoths* settled in Moldavia, and made frequent raids into the Balkan Peninsula. Led by Alaric, they descended upon Italy, and overcame the Vandals and Suevi in France and Spain, remaining there until the advent of the Moors¹ drove them into Cantabria and they ceased to exist as a people. The *Ostrogoths* occupied the Lower Danube about 460 and overran Italy thirty years later, where Theodoric set up an empire which was annihilated by the eastern Romans in 553, Baduila being defeated and slain.

¹ See p. 118.

The *Gepides*, a third Gothic tribe, were displaced in Wallachia by the Lombards.

5. **The Lombards.**—The Lombards have a name which is associated with the northern plain of Italy. They apparently had their first home along the coast-land of Mecklenburg and Pomerania. Hence they seem to have travelled southwards up the Elbe into Moravia and down the Danube, where they dislodged the Gepides in Wallachia and then made for Italy, a land attractive to all invaders in this era, both on account of its fertility and because of the evident decay of the rich but well-nigh obsolete Roman Empire. Charlemagne made an end of the Lombard dominion in 773–4.

6. **The Vandals.**—The Vandals were, like the Lombards, a Teutonic tribe, and came from the Baltic, between the Oder and the Vistula, in the north of the later Brandenburg dominions. Lands round here must have been singularly unattractive, marshy and infertile in those barbarous days. As population increased, the land became unable to feed the tribes, and they were forced to seek other lands. The Vandals had a very notable career. They appear to have crossed the Rhine near Mainz, and to have passed by way of Reims and Orléans. Afterwards they traversed the eastern end of the Pyrenees, and crossed Spain from north to south. Thence they descended upon north-west Africa, and conquered Carthage in 439. Here they set up an important maritime power, and,

under Genseric, invaded Italy. They sacked Rome and returned. Others had spent their force upon Sardinia and Sicily. The Vandal kingdom fell in 533, before Justinian's General Belisarius, who took Carthage.

7. **The Franks.**—Another great German tribe, the Franks, came from the lands between the Rhine and the Weser. They crossed the former in its lower course and made settlements in districts now belonging to Belgium. Clovis defeated the Romans and extended his dominions southward to the Loire and eastward to the Black Forest. Paris was his capital. After his death his kingdom was divided, but in course of time the rule of the Mayors of the Palace was strong enough to consolidate many of the Frankish possessions. The names of Pippin and Charles Martel occur to one as indicating the increasing prestige of this race. It was Pippin who began the destruction of the Lombards on behalf of the Pope. Charlemagne's Empire was the outcome of all these strifes, and is remarkable as being the only permanent kingdom set up by the German invaders of the Roman Empire.

8. **Other tribes.**—The *Burgundians*, another Teutonic tribe from the Eastern Baltic, settled in Eastern France about 413, and were subjected by the Franks in 536. The *Suevi* also came from the Eastern Baltic, and invaded Spain in 409 in company with the Alans. Here they settled and established a kingdom which

extended down the West Iberian coast and lasted till the Visigoths absorbed it in 582. The *Anglo-Saxons*,¹ who seem to have sailed from the mouths of the Elbe and Weser, invaded our own islands. The *Mongols* and the *Tartars* arrived in Eastern Europe considerably later than the peoples we have already mentioned, and conquered much of Russia.² They were gradually forced back far into Asia, where they remain. The *Turks* and *Saracens* we have mentioned at some length in a previous chapter.³ Lastly, the *Magyars* came from Turan, as far as can be ascertained, and were akin to the Avars. They settled in the Ural districts and appeared in Europe at the beginning of the ninth century. Migrating westwards, they came into collision with Henry the Fowler at Merseburg, on the now historic battle-ground to the west of Leipsig, and were severely checked. Twenty-two years later, in 955, Otto the Great defeated them on the Lech, and they finally settled in Hungary, where they remain, a pure-blooded and distinctive race.

This short summary, if followed out upon the map, will serve to show the trend-lines of migration into Western Europe. Two nuclei, Northern Germany and South-eastern Russia, will be observed. Tribes from the latter generally found their way round the south of the Carpathians. The Germans tended to attack easily accessible France and to overflow into Spain

¹ Vol. I, pp. 51, 54.

² See p. 144.

³ See p. 52.

and the Mediterranean, while initial victories over the palpably decaying Roman Empire no doubt spurred on more and more barbarian armies to come and feast on the spoils offered by a once powerful, still rich but effete realm.

CHAPTER XIV

POLITICAL DIVISIONS

1. **The Political Basis of History.**—The days of the confinement of Geography in the strait-jacket of political compartments have, we believe, passed away. It is much to be feared, however, that those days have left a legacy of misconception. It is common for historical writers to expend much time and research in determining the exact extent of different states at different times, without much attention being given to the why and the wherefore, or, in other words, the geographical bearing of these things. This tendency is evidenced by the constant recurrence of the phrase, "changes in the map of Europe"—as if the political map, by which physical features have been so long obscured, were the be-all and end-all of cartography. Let us rather say, "changes in the political control of Europe," and substitute, *e. g.*, for the common title, "Europe in 1815," "Europe, Political Control, 1815." It cannot be too clearly emphasized that changes in *the map of Europe*, since the days when the portentous beasts of Secondary and Tertiary times died out, and left man in reasonably undisturbed possession after the

Glacial Epoch, have been infinitesimal, and are only measured by such standards as the belts of barnacles on the pillars of the Temple at Pozzuoli—local changes of level which, in a map of the Continent, are negligible.

In previous chapters we have indicated the extent to which political frontiers march with regional boundaries. We now summarize our conclusions. Migrations have had separate treatment; we therefore begin with a review of territorial control in the time of Charlemagne.

2. Charlemagne's Empire.—About the year 814 A.D. the east of Europe was occupied by Asiatic and semi-Asiatic peoples, of whom we hear but little. Population was sparse, the land was fertile, and the more genial districts west of the Vistula were unknown to the nomadic and marauding tribes. Moreover, a strong power was centralized in Aachen. North of the Black Sea, the fertile steppes were occupied by Magyar hordes which had not yet felt their way through and round the Carpathians. Lands from the Lower Danube to the Baltic were under Slav occupation, while the Theiss basin was controlled by the Avars. Far to the north the Scandinavian lands, never capable in the west of supporting a large population, and looking in that quarter, towards the fertile vales and meadows of the British Isles, gave off the sea-hordes which had devastated much of England and Northern France and were soon to give a dynasty to our country. In the extreme south, the phenomenal rise of Islam had given

the whole vast tract, stretching from the Caucasus through Arabia, Syria and Egypt to the extreme north-west of the Atlas lands, to the Caliphs of Bagdad. An offshoot, the Moors, occupied all Iberia save the Christian strip of Cantabria. The Ottoman Turks, who had not succeeded in reducing Constantinople, possessed nearly the whole of Anatolia, and the southern portion of the Balkan Peninsula, together with the Illyrian coast, and Venice, and parts of Southern Italy (Naples, Amalfi, Bari, etc.) with Sicily and Sardinia. The dominions of Charlemagne comprised the rest of Europe, *i.e.* Aquitania, Burgundy, "Italy," Bavaria and Bohemia; Francia (from Nantes to the Elbe, and from Strassbourg to the Rhine mouth); and the lands of the Saxons and Frisians. The independent Danes inhabited, or rather had as a base, the peninsula of Jutland.

3. **Crusading times.**—By the year 1200 we find the land divided on lines forecasting the modern states. The break-up of Charlemagne's Empire, and the success of Charles Martel in driving back the Moors, made possible the kingdom which now was known as France. The feudal lords of Burgundy and those of Aquitaine (Henry II of England and his successors) were for a long time the rivals of the king who reigned in Paris; but the Hundred Years' War, the fall of Burgundy, and the strong policy of Louis XI, made France a leading power. The German or Holy Roman Empire had started upon the divided and inglorious career which was scotched at

Roszbach, and killed at Austerlitz. It included most of Central Europe. Poland was powerful, or fairly so, and had a port in Danzig. Hungary, a distinct region, was peopled by a distinctive nation. Servia and Bulgaria existed, and the East Roman Empire was fluttering out its precarious existence in yearly fear of dissolution at the hands of the Turk. The kingdom of Sicily had been formed, and the Mohammedans were being gradually thrust from Spain, for Christian kingdoms had been formed in Portugal, Leon, Castile, Navarre and Aragon, Granada being Moorish. Anatolia, Syria, Arabia, Egypt and Northern Africa we now leave, for their political control has been very much the same until recent years. Norway and Sweden and Denmark were properly consolidated powers, and, lastly, Russia was beginning to emerge gradually from its life and death struggle with the Tartars.

4. The Sixteenth Century.—The wars of religion heralded by the Counter-Reformation, and finishing with the transitional struggle, the Thirty Years' War, initiated the modern states system. Let us glance at the political map of, say, 1530. Portugal is a separate kingdom. In Spain, Castile and Aragon have united, and the Moors have been expelled. France has its present limits in the main, save that Roussillon and a considerable tract north of the Pyrenees are Spanish. Italy, coloured according to states, is bewildering. Sardinia, Naples and Sicily, the Papal States, Sienna, Florence, Venice,

Savoy, Milan, Genoa¹ and Modena are its main divisions, for these are the last days of the great city states. The Netherlands are about to wage their life and death struggle with Spain, and we can trace, in Central Europe, Brandenburg, Saxony, Prussia, Bohemia, Austria, Bavaria and Switzerland. The Turks occupy most of Hungary and all of Wallachia, and the Ottoman Empire stretches with hardly a break round the Black Sea to the east of Azov. Russia has grown, with Moscow for a centre ; but her dominions are shut in by Sweden, Livonia, Lithuania, and the Tartar states of Kazan, Astrakhan and Crimea. Sweden is rising to greatness, while the kingdom of Denmark comprises Norway as well as the southern parts of the realm.

5. **The Peace of Utrecht, and after.**—The treaty, which brought to a close the War of the Spanish Succession and checked the aggrandizement of France, initiated an era of spoliation of the weak and general political immorality which has left many a bitter legacy even to the present generation. Every power which signed the Peace of Utrecht began forthwith to attempt to overturn it. Elisabeth Farnese, with her minister, Alberoni, and Ripperda (Alberoni's successor), caused much uneasiness between 1715 and 1729 (Treaty of Seville), and from 1733 to 1738 was raging the War of the Polish Succession, when the Western Powers took advantage of Polish unsettlement to adjust their

¹ Including Corsica.

differences in regard to the dominions of Spain, Sardinia, France and Austria. But no great territorial changes were initiated until the rise of Prussia threw the whole European world into a turmoil. At the close of the Seven Years' War, Silesia remained in the hands of Frederick the Great, who had torn it from Austria in 1740, and Poland was soon after subjected to spoliation by Prussia, Russia and Austria. The net result was the extinction of Poland. Russia profited mostly, as far as additional area of possessions is concerned. Austria annexed Galicia and the land round Cracow, thus transgressing her geographical frontier. Prussia filled in the gap between Brandenburg and Polish Prussia by gaining the intervening coast strip, including Danzig and the Lower Vistula.


6. **The Napoleonic Empire.**—After the year 1789 interest centred in the rise of France and Russia, until the world's battlefield of Leipsig initiated the aggrandizement of Germany. Russia, by the year 1805, had advanced to the Pruth, having annexed Azov and the Crimea. The Duchy of Warsaw still remained to be swallowed. The inflated and ephemeral empire of Napoleon transgressed all bounds, geographical and ethnographical. "France" itself reached along the northern coast to the Elbe, where friendly Denmark (which still included Norway) preserved a precarious independence. From near Wesel to Basle the Rhine—

long-coveted but ungeographical frontier¹—was the eastern boundary. Switzerland was temporarily extinct as a separate political entity. Italy was in a state bordering upon the ridiculous. Murat was made King of Naples in 1808, while Bonaparte had constituted himself King of Italy in 1805, with Eugène de Beauharnais Viceroy, while the infant son, fruit of the marriage with Marie Louise of Austria, was crowned King of Rome. Louis Napoleon was King of Holland, and his brother Jerome was King of Westphalia. The whole set of arrangements, viewed in the light of subsequent history, wears quite a farcical aspect. Prussia became a mere province of France, until the patriotism of Stein, Hardenberg and Scharnhorst forged the weapon which finally struck the conqueror down. Austria, shorn of Illyria, was feebly restive, but easily to be crushed. Spain, whose “King” was Joseph Bonaparte, and Portugal, whose royal family had been driven away, proved a very different matter, thanks to the persistent genius of the Duke of Wellington. In 1810 Jean Bernadotte, of whom the French Emperor was not sorry to be rid, was made Prince Royal of Sweden, and afterwards became king. He helped to ruin his old master in 1813.

7. The Settlement of 1814–1815.—It has been said that the Congress of Vienna marked the close of the

¹ See p. 126.

eighteenth century rather than the opening of the nineteenth. The benevolent despots who set to work to initiate the millenium, heralded by the downfall of Napoleon, were working upon essentially eighteenth century ideas when they rearranged the political control of Europe. The unwisdom of many points in the settlement was soon apparent, as we shall briefly show. Germany was given a Diet, charged with ill-defined powers. The upshot was the war of 1866, which was a struggle between Austria and Prussia for the German hegemony. The French war of 1870 confirmed Prussia in that leadership. Russia, Spain, Portugal and the Ottoman Empire call for little comment here. Poland had shrunk still further, the Czar assuming the title of King, and granting a Constitution to that long-disturbed country. In 1832 Poland was extinguished and the Constitution annulled. On the other hand, the freedom of Switzerland was guaranteed by the Powers, and Valais, Geneva and Neuchâtel became full members of the Confederation. Sweden sold her Pomeranian lands to Prussia, and, in order to reward Bernadotte for helping the allies against France, Norway was taken from Denmark (ever faithful to Napoleon), and the whole peninsula put under the one sovereign. This apparent triumph of geographical principles was a violation of the liberties of the people of Denmark and of Norway. The Scandinavian situation remained very strained until at last, in 1906, the western people broke



away from Sweden, and (happily without bloodshed), formed a separate kingdom.

The case of the Netherlands was even worse. After living fairly happily under French rule, Holland and Belgium were "united" into the kingdom of the Netherlands under William I, formerly Prince of Orange. Belgium refused the new Constitution, but it was forced upon her, Liberalism not being a principle recognized by the Powers. Dutch taxation and the attempted introduction of the Dutch language in 1821 caused fresh discontent, and in 1830-3 Belgium broke away and made Prince Leopold of Saxe-Coburg king. The revolution was successful, being supported by England and France. In Italy Austrian influence was once more made paramount. Murat was driven out and finally shot; Ferdinand IV was restored to the two Sicilies; Genoa was given to the king of Sardinia; Austria was allowed Lombardy and Venetia; the Dukes of Modena and Tuscany were restored, and Pius VII regained the Papal States. The sequel came in the rise of Garibaldi and Cavour, and the unification of Italy under Victor Emanuel I, who had taken over the Sardinian monarchy upon the abdication of Charles Albert. Corsica remained French, but Malta, Gibraltar and Heligoland were left in the hands of England. The last-named has been ceded to Germany; the first two are among our most priceless possessions.

8. **Summary: Present Control.**—Only two other

changes of any moment remain to be noticed. Schleswig-Holstein was torn away from gallant but luckless Denmark in 1864. The important Kaiser Wilhelm Canal now runs through that territory. Also, France lost to Germany in 1870 all her hold on the Rhine and much of her Mosel territory. To-day, then, the lands of Europe are divided as follows—

France possesses the basins of the Seine, Loire, Garonne and Rhone, with parts of those of the Mosel and Meuse. The eastern boundary is most arbitrary, and is roughly defined by the crest of the Alps, Jura and Vosges. Further north it is quite artificial. North-eastwards the country passes imperceptibly into

Belgium, the Roman Catholic and French-speaking portion of the Netherlands.

Holland consists of the low-lying Rhine, Maas, Lek and Waal mouths. There is no abrupt transition to the German North Sea coast, fringed with low-lying islands, and backed by the sandy *geest*.

Denmark consists of the part of the peninsula of Jutland that Germany does not want, together with many of the adjacent islands.

The German Empire has no definite physical boundary on the east. A good deal of infertile land, however, separates Russia from the Teutonic power. The dominions of Austria are separated from Germany by the Sudetes, the Riesengebirge, the Bohemian Forest, and by the Inn-Salzach and the northern slopes of the

Eastern Alps. The French limits have already been noticed. In the north, most of the coastline is on the Baltic; but an important little strip of North Sea littoral has Heligoland for an outpost. The whole empire may be said to comprise the following river basins: the Middle Rhine, the Upper Danube, the Weser, the Middle and Lower Elbe, the Oder and the Lower Vistula.

Switzerland consists of the northern slopes of the Western Alps, together with the upper portions of the basins of the Rhone, Rhine, Aar and Reuss.

Italy is the simplest of the physical-political divisions of Europe. The seaward slopes of the Alps, the Plain of Lombardy and the Appenine Peninsula, with Sicily and Sardinia, but not Corsica, comprise the territory united since 1871 under one monarch, with Rome as capital.

Portugal, roughly, includes the lower courses of the Douro and Tagus, with the Lower Guadiana as an eastern limit.

Spain is the Iberian Peninsula, excluding Portugal.

Russia is the major portion of the great Eurasian Plain. It includes Lapland, Finland and all Poland except the parts taken by Prussia and Austria. The boundary in the south reaches the Danube mouth, includes the rich oil-bearing region of Trans-Caucasia, passes the southern edge of the Caspian to the Pamirs, and then makes irregularly across the northern trend-

lines of the Central Asian mountains, following the Amur for many hundreds of miles, and then suddenly turning south to reach the Japanese Sea west of Vladivostok. The northern and eastern limit of the Empire is the coastline from the point we have mentioned, round Kamchatka to the Vardanger Fiord, while the Gulfs of Bothnia and Finland and the Baltic form the western sea boundary. It is impossible to geographically sum up so vast and varied a territory.

Norway is the western portion of the Scandinavian Peninsula, bounded roughly by the main watershed.

Sweden is the eastern, larger and flatter portion of the same.

Austria-Hungary comprises a great variety of territory. The Bohemian massif is the northern outlier. The whole of the Eastern Alps, save the Venice-ward slopes, are included, as well as a strip of the Illyrian sea-coast reaching to the south of Ragusa, the Hungarian Plain, and the excrescences due to the spoliation of Poland viz. Government of Cracow and the province of Galicia.

Romania is, physically, a tongue of Russia thrust between the Transylvanian mountains and the Danube, but including besides, the bleak, barren, difficult plateau of the Dobruda.

Servia is the basin of the Morava, with the fringing heights to east and west.

Montenegro is a purely artificial division, interposing between the quasi-Austrian Herzegovina and Turkey.

Greece is the southern portion of the Balkan Peninsula, separated from Turkey by an irregular and arbitrary boundary by land and sea, while

Turkey is the portion of the Peninsula, including Constantinople, between Greece on the one hand and the buffer states which shut off Russia and Austria on the other. The coastline extends from the Gulf of Drin to the Gulf of Arta, and (if we include the tributary state of Bulgaria, *i.e.* both slopes of the Balkans) from the Dobruda coast, fringing Thrace and Macedonia, to the northern edge of the Vale of Tempe.

Thus it will be seen that, in Europe at least, physical and political geography have but little in common. Science seldom draws hard-and-fast lines, but in Politics there are no transition areas.

CHAPTER XV

HISTORIC TOWNS

1. **The Teaching of Historic Towns.**—An important and somewhat neglected aspect of Geography which is well recognized, but not often pursued with thoroughness, is the study of towns. This is really the domain of commercial geography in most instances; but we must recognize that the importance of towns is not always a matter of population, though population is, on the whole, the safest guide. We shall therefore treat of towns which have played a part in history as well as those which play a part in commerce, and, after all, commerce is an aspect of history. We will accordingly classify some of the important towns of Europe according to the manner of their growth, and finally take a very few as typical examples. This must not be regarded as in any way an exhaustive list; we only take a few to serve as a guide to the student who is to analyze similar positions. A few instances which illustrate general principles will be drawn from our own islands, as being more familiar to the student than the Continent.

2. **Classification.**—It must be said at the start that

no one cause will ever account for the existence of any one given city. In consequence, some places will appear in more than one class.

The first essential for a group of habitations is water supply. There is not often a difficulty in this respect in Europe, save in parts of the Mediterranean region, where defective rainfall or porous rocks, or both, sometimes make population scanty. Not the least of the assets of our own Pennine region is the flat-topped gritstone moorland country which holds a great proportion of a fairly heavy rainfall. The Penistone (Woodhead Tunnel) summit of the Great Central Railway, where the line runs beside vast reservoirs miles in aggregate length, gives an excellent object-lesson in the importance of a good supply. When we remember further that these lakes, together with the basins at Audenshaw and Fairfield, are inadequate for Manchester, and that Thirlmere has been tapped for the purpose with a double pipe, that Glasgow is supplied by Loch Katrine, Liverpool by an artificial connection with Lake Vyrnwy, and Birmingham by forming a series of lakes through the damming up at intervals of the waters of two small rivers on the western border of Radnorshire—in the very heart of the Welsh mountains, involving the construction of an aqueduct 80 miles in length—we can realize what an urgent question this is.

3. **Water supply.**—It will be useful, then, to notice

how the drainage system of a district has determined sites afterwards to become important. The Aire drainage, emerging on to the lower ground of the fertile Vale of York, made Leeds possible. "Sheltered valley heads, well supplied with abundant springs of excellent water," are responsible for countless villages all over this country and the Continent, some of which have grown large from other causes, such as Laibach, Montauban, Valladolid, Christiania, Grenoble, and, in our country, Carmarthen, Belfast, Richmond (Yorks), Selkirk and Appleby. The outcrops of impervious rocks are rich in springs, such as the Keuper Sandstone in our Midland districts. Instances are to be found in Warwick, Coventry and Birmingham. A detailed study of the Continent would reveal numberless examples of the same thing, the villages and towns of the Paris basin being especially suitable. On low ground, the presence of impervious strata, such as clay, beneath gravels or other porous formations, is an incentive to building. Chester is built on sandstone rising above boulder-clay, and numbers of North German towns and villages show similar conditions. London itself is on "a tract of good gravel, well supplied with water" from the London clay beneath, "not liable to flooding, and not commanded by neighbouring higher ground."¹

4. **Confluences of rivers and junctions of roads.**—In effect, the junctions of roads and rivers often correspond,

¹ Lord Avebury, *Scenery of England*, p. 460.

as river valleys are always main routes if their heads are conveniently connected with others. All over the world great cities stand at confluences, such as Coblenz (Lahn, Mosel, Rhine), Belgrad (Save, Danube), Lyon (Saône, Rhone), Nizhni Novgorod (Oka, Volga), Khartum (Blue Nile, White Nile), St. Louis (Mississippi, Missouri), and hosts of others. In our lands the same thing can be traced with ease. The Kennet joins the Thames at Reading, and the Cherwell runs in at Oxford. Dove and Trent join at Burton, Don and Ouse at Goole, Avon and Severn at Tewkesbury, Exe and Culm at Exeter. The reason for this is in part the frequent occurrence of gravel sheets at such points, making a dry, healthy site, and largely also the ease with which the angle can be fortified. Coblenz, Belgrad and Khartum, just mentioned, illustrate this. But the joining of routes at these points is the most potent factor in modern times. Where lines of traffic converge, there is the nucleus of a large trading emporium. On the whole, the sites of confluences in our islands are not notable; but abroad, where rivers are larger, this consideration is important.

5. **Tides, river-mouths, harbours.**—Tides have always played an important part in navigation, and the highest effective point of the tides up a given river is a likely spot for the founding of a village which may grow into a large community. Preston on the Ribble suggests itself. In modern times the exigencies of the position,

the river being much too shallow and stony for to-day's requirements, have enforced the making of a dock for ocean-going vessels a little lower down the river. Among European ports of this kind Hamburg stands pre-eminent, the long and navigable Elbe estuary being very favourable for keeping a deep passage, sheltered from all except north-west winds, and too remote to be affected seriously even by these, ready for the largest ships. Here there are tidal docks accessible at high water of ordinary springs for vessels drawing 32 feet. Antwerp and Bordeaux are comparable, and Brest also in a measure; though the excellent accommodation of the last-named, and its comparatively thinly-populated hinterland, have determined its use as a naval rather than a commercial port. Rivers are important when flowing into harbours if they tap industrial or agricultural districts, because they are usually the course of roads and railways. No great stream flows, for instance, into Brest; the result, as just mentioned, being largely due to that fact. Lisbon owes as much to the Tagus as does Oporto to the Douro. Mere harbours are fairly numerous in Europe as elsewhere, when the structure of the coast is favourable. Valparaiso, Sydney and Halifax have their counterparts, in a somewhat humbler degree, in Genoa, Kiel and Stockholm. Marseille is virtually a river port, as it is reached from the Rhone on the landward side, and stands just free of the low, obstructed delta.


6. **Fords and Bridges.**—The number of towns situated at fords and bridges is very large, and points to both trading and military exigencies—passage-ways for transport and vulnerable points to be guarded. A few examples will be selected. Piacenza and Cremona are situated at points where the Po could easily be bridged; Kiev, in the middle of the basin of the Dniepr, Prag on the Moldau, Paris on the Seine, Zaragoza on the Ebro, are all similar in origin. Actual ford towns tend to be smaller, and their importance dates back to medieval times, though modern developments may have increased their size. Abbéville on the Somme reminds us of Edward III and Henry V, and Limoges of the Black Prince. Examples are easily traced in our own lands, many by the suffix. Chelmsford (notable in British and in Roman times), Oxford, Hereford, Stafford, Bedford, Ashford, Wallingford (crossed by the Conqueror)—there are numbers of them.

7. **Modern Developments—Coal and Iron.**—No one needs reminding how important are the sites of coal-fields. It is these, and the attendant iron mines and limestone for a flux, that have practically created most modern towns of any size. In France the coal areas contain such places as St. Etienne, Lyon, and, *par excellence*, Lille. Liège in Belgium, Chemnitz, Dresden, Leipsig and other great industrial sites in Saxony, as well as the whole Vienna district, are well known. Belgium is a mass of population in the south, and in

the United States of America the wonderful factory regions of Illinois, Pennsylvania, Kansas and Missouri owe no small part of their prosperity to the nearness of coal and iron. At the present day, it is true, the introduction of automatic machinery that works with an uncanny, almost human skill, is tending to shift manufactures from the centres of skilled labour to the homes of the raw materials, and the newer industrial centres are competing with the old-established ones; but there is no sign to-day of any diminution of the output of the vast districts just mentioned. In our own case the wish is father to the thought, judging from statistics on the one hand and the alarming prognostications of our foreign rivals on the other.

8. Towns on great routes.—The chief historical interest attaches to places which stand in conspicuous positions on important highways. A very great portion of this work directly bears upon this very subject, so we will deal with it here by way of recapitulation, taking the chief European routes and reminding the reader of the most interesting points along them.

Beginning with Paris as a centre, we take note of great roads leading therefrom. South-westwards we pass Orléans, famous as the scene of the Jeanne d' Arc revival; Tours, the most northerly point aimed at by the invading Moors; Poitiers, where their hopes were crushed by Charles Martel, and where the Black Prince



gained a success in 1356 ; Bordeaux, an English seaport for many years ; and Bayonne, the key of the western end of the Pyrenees, leading through difficult passes to Valladolid and the heart of the Iberian Peninsula. From Bordeaux an important cross route traverses Toulouse, and, through the Carcassonne Gate, reaches Narbonne, Perpignan, Barcelona, Zaragoza and Madrid, from which point the way can be conveniently continued to the coast at Lisbon or Cadiz. Paris connects with the Rhone valley by way of Dijon, the line leading to Lyon and Marseille. Further, we can skirt the Alpine-Appenine coast by way of Toulon, Nice, Genoa, Leghorn, Rome and Naples. Lyon, again, is the junction for the Mont Cenis road to Turin. The Burgundy Gate is reached *via* Troyes, and from Belfort the Rhine or Switzerland and Lombardy (Milan) lie on the track. Lastly, Berlin is attained by a journey to Liège, Cologne and Hanover.

Berlin is the next centre which we take. The way to Paris has just been indicated. The Hanover road also leads to Rotterdam. The north coast is at all points within easy and unimpeded reach, and lines and roads radiate like the spokes of a wheel to Bremen, Hamburg (and Denmark), Kiel, Rostock, Stettin (for Copenhagen), Danzig and Königsberg. Landwards, and connecting with Russia for peace or war, we note the way to Thorn, a fortress on the Vistula, Warsaw, and Riga, St. Petersburg, Moscow, Kiev, or Odessa.

Silesia is reached down the Oder, Breslau communicating in its turn with Lemburg, and so with Kiev, or Odessa once more. Leipsig, for Frankfurt and the Rhine, or for Regensburg and Bavaria, is not far from the Imperial Capital, and Dresden lies due south of it, whence the Elbe gap gives access to Prag and Vienna.

Vienna focusses most of the long and important European roads. Berlin connects with it through Bohemia, or by Silesia and the Moravian Gate. Paris, Basle, Innsbrück, Linz, or Paris, Nancy, Strassbourg, Munich, Linz are leading French approaches. Venice, Triest and Fiume do not entail long or difficult journeys from Vienna, while the Orient Express route is *via* Buda-Pest, Belgrad, Sofia and Adrianople to Constantinople.

We need not, we are sure, do more than just indicate these routes. How much have Dresden and Prag suffered, lying as they do between two rival capitals! What a chequered career is that of Strassbourg, coveted alike by French and German! And who needs reminding of the importance of Liège?

We now consider one or two separate towns.

9. **Madrid.**—This capital is an example of a rare class—a city placed in a geometrically central position, and intended to be important in spite of natural disabilities. Madrid is a great city, the head and heart

of Spain, simply because the fiat went forth that it was to be the capital. It has necessarily become the focus of railways, and has increased rapidly in population; but its situation is in a region of no charm, the climate is atrocious, and the Manzanares, on which it stands, is a most insignificant little stream.

10. **Venice.**—This lovely city is a lagoon port, and was, in medieval times at least, practically inviolable by land or sea. In the times when city states in Italy were the order of the day, the natural strength of Venice, and its sheltered and favourable position for maritime and overland trade, lifted the place into a very proud position, not only in the Peninsula, but in Europe. To-day, there being no coal and no great industries in the hinterland, "the glory has departed"; but thousands of tourists spend their time in Venice to-day.

11. **St. Petersburg.**—The Russian capital, like Madrid, is an artificial one. It was built by Peter the Great to command the Gulf of Finland and dominate the Baltic. Speaking generally, its situation is admirable for the purpose; but if we turn to more particular considerations, we observe that the climate is very unhealthy, owing to the marshy nature of the district, and the death-rate exceeds the birth-rate. Population is maintained by immigration. There is a good deal done in the way of manufactures; but St.

Petersburg is mainly an official town, containing a large number of very fine official buildings.

12. **Hamburg.**—An analysis of the position of this great port is instructive. In the first place, the tidal docks will take the very largest vessels. Further, Hamburg stands at the mouth of the Elbe, a stream which taps the great manufacturing districts of Saxony, as well as those of Bohemia. But this seaport largely monopolizes the export trade of towns to the east and west of the Elbe, as well as much of that of South Germany. This is on account of the great facilities for cheap water transport, and because (most important of all) the Elbe flows into the North Sea, and not the oft-frozen, not easily accessible Baltic. The prosperity of Hamburg is evidenced by the fact that it has an annual export trade of £140,500,000, with imports £115,000,000. Liverpool sends out £138,000,000 worth in the year and receives £139,000,000 worth; while London's figures are £104,000,000 and £181,000,000 respectively.

13. **Berlin.**—Here we have an instance of history determining a city's importance rather than geography. Berlin was the centre of the Brandenburg territory, being the seat of the Hohenzollerns. It has grown with the aggrandizement of the Brandenburg-Prussian power, in the same way as London has kept pace with, and even outbidden, the development of the Empire. It was plundered by the Russians in the

Seven Years' War; but it is well masked by Magdeburg on the Elbe and Frankfurt and Cüstrin on the Oder. When railways became general its position as a distributing centre was made prominent, and now, as we have shown above, it is one of the great foci of communication in Europe.

CHAPTER XVI

CONCLUSION

THE purposes of the work we have just concluded may well be summarized before we leave the subject altogether. In the study of Historical Geography we have to bear in mind that we are dealing with three main factors, the regional, the political and the chronological. In these two volumes we set before us the task of, in general, correlating the physical with the human, *i. e.*, of showing *how far* (attempting all the time to avoid the vice of exaggeration) geographical conditions have affected the march of history in a given area. If we merely study topography, climate, and so on, as affecting man's activities, we are dealing in the main with stable conditions; that is to say, with Commercial Geography. We have not ventured to any great extent to apply our facts so as to forecast the future: he is a bold man who would attempt that; and there are considerations of space. We have also decided to leave out all reference to the very suggestive study of Ecclesiastical Geography.¹ We have, then,

¹ This is admirably dealt with in Poole's *Oxford Historical Atlas*.


viewed the past history of one region and another in the light of its geography. Occasionally we have gone into rather full detail, where the interest of the place or time has justified it: more often we have selected a few typical illustrations, in the hope that the student, not being satisfied by them, may pursue the subject further.

What justification have we for making the region the basis of our work? This question may best be answered by first touching upon other methods. If we divide history chronologically, we are studying the development of kingdoms, of peoples, of ideas *per se*, and we are laying all our stress upon effect, largely neglecting cause. We are, indeed, reading a narrative. No student of history worth the name, however, ceases there. Facts are the bed-rock of knowledge which all must acquire and none may affect to despise. There is, unfortunately, a decided tendency to-day to neglect them for more pleasant pursuits, and to allow the memory to rust. Facts must be acquired: he is the best historian who both knows them and can use them. In a word, we must know our annals first, and then we can turn to the philosophic side of the question.

Nor is the "political" method wholly satisfactory. To quote only one instance; the history of Belgium (that is, Belgium as a state) is but an insignificant thing: it is the history of the Franco-Belgian frontier that matters. In other words, the history of many

countries is of little interest; but their Historical Geography is of vast import. What are the peoples of the Near East to-day in comparison with the position of their land and its place in history—the lofty stage on which many a terrific drama has been enacted before the rapt gaze of three continents? Political boundaries, too, are generally artificial. Europe illustrates this over and over again. Of all the countries whose territories go to make up that continent, one alone is a distinctive area, and, strangely enough, that area was the last to become the home of a united people—Italy. Climatology admits of transition areas: politics dare not. Hard and fast divisions are the essence of international settlements; but they seldom have a place in science.

We do not select the regional method because it is entirely satisfactory; no treatment is so; but because in the first place it is elastic enough to combine the good points of any others, and also because we believe that it is equally helpful to the historian and the geographer. Many a history that we have examined lately contains whole campaigns written up without any reference to the atlas. We have seen the Treaty of Klein-Schnellendorf made as intelligible as if it were the Treaty of the South Pole, instead of being correlated with the topography of Neisse. Nor do we often see such terms as “the preliminaries of Leoben” made any more than the closing of an historical compartment. A great deal may be learned from a study of the places



where treaties were signed. Tilsit is an instance which any one would pick out immediately.

Further, the treatment we have adopted for our subject may be claimed to be both logical and scientific. It is the transition from the philosophy of History to that of Geography, for we claim Geography, properly studied, as a philosophy. Nothing in the whole purview of the subject can be divorced from the physical. It is the science of distributions, whether of temperature, of rainfall, of products, of man, or of man's activities; and the only satisfactory method of classification is, to our mind, the all-inclusive one of the region. Arbitrary this is bound to be, because, subject to certain indisputable general laws, there can be great variations of detail; but we venture to affirm that no method is so satisfactory as the one we have adopted, because no other is so elastic, so all-inclusive.

Geography in general is a compendium of the sciences. It includes aspects of Geology, of Astronomy, of Economics, and of many similar studies, and no geographer can claim to be fully equipped if he have not some knowledge of each and all of these. In the same way Historical Geography is a compendium of some of the Physical, and all of the Human Sciences. We need to know, in the first place, the earth, and, in the second, man on the earth. Anthropology has its place, for instance, where it can present us with facts. Military history also commands attention, but only on

the topographical side. In time, we construct our edifice out of many materials, from quarry, wood and mine. We naturally select only those which are useful for our purpose, and discard the rest, which go to carry out the plans of other builders. Those which we do employ we endeavour to blend into one harmonious whole, and this we call Historical Geography.

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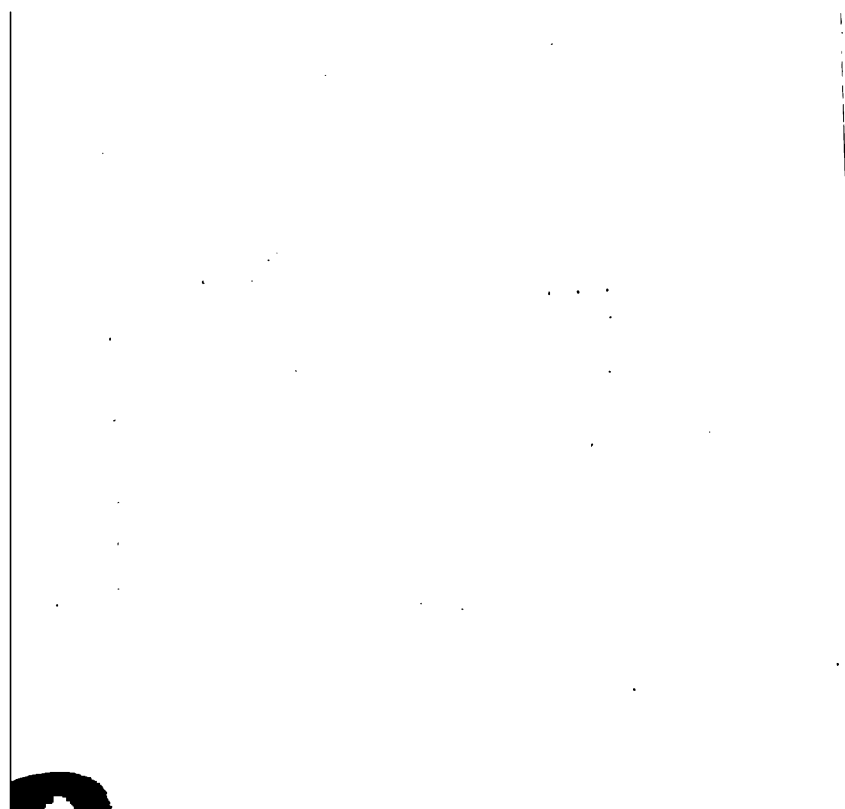
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